

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### WHAT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL SHOULD TEACH

AT THE date of this writing the American Youth Commission is releasing, under the title *What the High Schools Ought To Teach*, the report of a special committee on the secondary-school curriculum. The report is characterized by Floyd W. Reeves, director of the Commission, as "one of the most important contributions to secondary education of this generation." A digest of the report, prepared by Alan Murray, at present a member of the staff of the Commission, after abstracting preliminary portions, indicates that the main emphases in matters pertaining to the curriculum are on (1) reading, (2) work experience, (3) the social studies, and (4) personal problems. We quote in full these portions of the digest.

*Reading.*—The first of the positive recommendations for the curriculum is a section advocating "a continuation of instruction in reading. Instruction in reading begins in the elementary school and is the most important single branch of elementary education. The mistake has long been made in secondary schools of assuming that pupils are not in need of post-elementary instruction in reading." The section on reading points out that "a great many pupils . . . have reading abilities of the fifth or even of the fourth grade level," and that "it frequently happens that pupils fail in such subjects as history and science, not because they lack ability to master the facts covered in these subjects, but because they are so incompetent in their reading that they cannot keep up with the assignments that are given them."

Both the material in textbooks, which is claimed to be in many cases "altogether inappropriate for the cultivation of reading habits," and methods of

teachers, who "show ingenuity in torturing the subject studied by asking all kinds of questions which train the pupil in the most deliberate and minute dissection of what he has read," are given a share of the blame for the poor reading abilities acquired by pupils. "Pupils," says the report, "begin to think that it requires from three to six months to read through a book."

The various forms of reading necessary to become a "fluent, independent reader" are discussed, and frequent reading in libraries, with emphasis on library methods, is advocated.

"The advantages that would come from more intelligent handling of reading in the instructional program of secondary schools" are asserted to be far greater than making good readers. "The whole structure of the program would be changed," the committee states.

*Work experience.*—An equally strong recommendation in the report is that work experience be made a part of the curriculum of high schools. Pointing to the "interesting historical fact that the early educational laws of the American colonies explicitly provided that parents should give their children training in some useful occupation," the report explains that in earlier days, "parents were able, especially in agricultural occupations and in many of the simpler crafts, to teach work habits without seriously interrupting their own activities." But as industrial conditions changed, parents "could no longer adequately train their children in work." The result, the report charges, is that "manual work is now no longer a part of the education of a great number of young people."

At present, according to the report, work "does not have the sanction of traditional school practice." In spite of this, "by the time a young person reaches adolescence he needs to have opportunities for work if he is to make the transition into adulthood readily and efficiently. Work can be advocated as a much-to-be desired phase of education for all classes of young people." Moreover, "the ability to work steadily for eight hours is not a natural possession; it has to be acquired."

Praise is accorded government youth work agencies for pointing the way to the inclusion of work experience in high schools. "The educational system of the United States will never again be what it was before the federal agencies for youth began to provide work opportunities," states the report, adding that the government program "has supplemented in a highly significant way the nation's program of education. . . . It has cultivated confidence and morale where the school failed to equip many of its pupils to face the realities of practical life."

In spite of inadequate facilities in many high schools for providing equipment and wages for productive work done, the report states that "the school can introduce productive work without wages into its program in accordance with thoroughly legitimate educational principles if it convinces young people that it is their duty to contribute to community welfare. . . . Schools can also put their pupils in contact with opportunities that give practical work training and prepare more directly than does ordinary schoolwork for later employment by arranging with industries to give pupils part-time employment."

Work experience is important for all high-school pupils whatever their future may be, according to the report, which says: "Those who are to enter the professions need to labor at some period in their lives in order to gain an understanding and appreciation of what labor is. Those who are going to earn their living by labor have a right to be trained under competent supervision so that they may enter on their careers under the most favorable conditions possible."

*The social studies.*—A third field of general education to which a section of the report is devoted is that of the social studies. It is observed: "The schools of the United States have in recent years become very conscious of the necessity of greatly expanding their program of instruction in the social studies if they are to provide an effective education for citizenship in a democracy. The major social study which is now included in the programs of the great majority of schools is history. History as usually taught is a chronological account of happenings remote from the environments and lives of pupils. Emphasis has often been on ancient history and on the mere mechanics of government to the exclusion of instruction on modern problems and on the fundamental concepts of social organization."

After reviewing the difficulties in successfully "cultivating intelligence about social problems," the report asserts: "The one fact about the social studies that is altogether certain is that there must be far more instruction in these fields than there has been in the past. When community life was comparatively simple and parents could speak with assurance on the topics of public interest, young people were given by their parents a fairly adequate view of their civic rights and responsibilities. As the range of social contacts has widened and the social order has become complex, community life has become more difficult of comprehension through mere observation or through discussions around the dinner table. The obligation of finding some way of preparing young people for citizenship, for intelligent social attitudes, and for effective participation in community life has become a public obligation which must be met if social chaos is to be avoided."

*Personal problems.*—"In addition to instruction in social studies there must be a place in any program of general education for a course in personal problems," the report recommends. Among these problems are those of physical and mental health and of family life. Regarding the latter the committee says: "As in many other spheres of modern life, the parents of young people are not competent to marshal more than a part of the facts that young people ought to know. If parents do all they can to teach the lessons of family life, there is still need for consideration of family problems on the basis of facts that can properly be supplied by specialists in biology and sociology. It is not defensible to postpone to the period of college attendance the study of many of the topics to which reference is here made for the reason that the college student body is only a small fraction of the population. The secondary schools are the institutions which must disseminate knowledge on family life and like topics because it is in these schools that the youth of the nation are registered."

The report stresses, in addition, recommendations for revitalizing instruction in the conventional subjects, the co-operation of teachers that will achieve reorganization of the pupil's experience, the setting-up of an agency for the preparation of curriculum materials, and leadership in the work of reorganization.

The committee which prepared the report consisted of the following members: Ben G. Graham, superintendent of public schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (chairman); Thomas H. Briggs, professor of secondary education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Will French, professor of secondary education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Oscar Granger, principal, Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; Charles A. Prosser, director, William Hood Dunwoody Institute, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Francis T. Spaulding, professor of education, Harvard University; Alexander J. Stoddard, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; George D. Strayer, professor of educational administration, Teachers College, Columbia University; Willis A. Sutton, superintendent of public schools, Atlanta, Georgia; Ralph W. Tyler, chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago.

Copies of *What the High Schools Ought To Teach* may be purchased for twenty-five cents of the American Council on Education at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

#### CONCERNING CRITERIA FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

COMMENT on the article by Messrs. Outland and Jones in this issue, "High-School Pupils Evaluate the Social-Studies Program," may be prefaced by the assertion that all manuscripts published in the *School Review* are accepted because they promise to be interesting and significant for a large portion of our readers. The array of materials submitted for publication has, for many years, been broad and rich enough to permit excluding from our pages what seem to the editor to be articles of negligible or trifling value. It may be gratuitous to state further, because it is an item of reiterated policy of many periodicals, that publication of an article does not mean that the editor subscribes to all positions taken by its author.

Both types of statements, relating to the admitted merit, which have just been made, apply to the article named. This article uses



as the sole criterion of "items" for a course in social studies for Grade XII the importance of each item to the pupil "personally." The merit of use of such a criterion in the field of the social studies is that it provides a point of contact with the pupil, a sort of bridge to areas more *socially* (as contrasted with *personally*) significant. Its deficiency is that, used alone, as it has been in this study, it takes little or no account of the major purpose of the social studies implicit in the word "social." This purpose is made apparent in the foregoing abstract of *What the High Schools Ought To Teach* at the point where reference is made to the need for emphasis on the social studies. One of the sentences quoted in the abstract says, "The obligation of finding some way for preparing young people for citizenship, for intelligent social attitudes, and for effective participation in community life has become a public obligation which must be met if social chaos is to be avoided." While the authors of "High-School Pupils Evaluate the Social-Studies Program" may be cognizant of this purpose of the social studies, they make no mention of it in the article.

The limitations of this single criterion for content of the social studies are made apparent by brief scrutiny of the lists of items presented in the table accompanying the article. Although one may not question the importance of the items rated "most important," such as "How to develop personality," "How to get along with people," "How to know my own abilities," and "How to apply for a job," they are all self-centered instead of oriented to society's welfare. On the other hand, among the items rated as "least important" are several of undoubted social significance.

The criterion of "most important to the pupil personally" would be unacceptable as the sole basis of evaluation of content for the social studies even for the first secondary-school grade. How much more unacceptable must it be at the level of Grade XII! It would be hoped that, by the time of attaining that grade, the pupil would be sufficiently socialized in point of view to appreciate matters of concern to others than himself. Dependence on this criterion alone in the field represented is an instance of the undesirable extreme to which the theory of the child-centered school, in large part an acceptable theory, can be carried.

## A DEFENSE DECALOGUE FOR EDUCATORS

**I**N AN article in the *New Republic* on "Educators in This Crisis," Professor George S. Counts outlines a "ten-point program" which he says is presented "for the purpose of starting discussion." Following are the ten points, which we are glad to commend to the attention of our readers.

1. The educational forces of the country should achieve unity. At any rate, they should prepare to make the voice of the teaching profession heard on all of the more fundamental questions involved in the defense program. In the past, education as a whole has had no voice; it has been a Babel of discordant tongues. The time has come to create a central body composed of members genuinely representing the professional workers in all of the great departments and divisions of our educational enterprise—public and private, elementary, secondary and higher, east, west, north, and south. Only such a body can express the outlook and co-ordinate the energies of American education.

2. The educational services of the country should be fully maintained. More than that. The present inequalities should be removed and deficiencies corrected. If educational opportunity is one of the great opportunities, as it indubitably is, any genuine program for the defense of democracy should include provisions for equalizing such opportunity—for removing the disabilities under which the children of certain classes, races, occupations, and regions suffer today.

3. Any system of universal service inaugurated by the government should be regarded as more than a purely military undertaking. The soldiers of a democracy cannot be trained according to the pattern followed by the totalitarian states. As free men they must know what they are being prepared to defend. This means that the program of training should embrace a serious study of both democracy and dictatorship. The teachers of the nation should share in the planning and the administration of this program.

4. A far more comprehensive program of vocational training than we have ever had should be launched. This is required not only in the interest of military defense but also in the interest of a sound and efficient economy in this age of advanced technology. The training here proposed should be provided very largely by and under the auspices of the existing educational authorities, partly for reasons of economy but chiefly for reasons of state. The skilled workers of the country, no less than the soldiers, should be prepared to understand the present crisis of democracy.

5. Through the educational facilities of the nation a program of adult education, surpassing anything the world has ever seen, should be launched immediately. This program should be designed to awaken the American people to the threat of catastrophe and to prepare them to deal with it. Every school building should become a center of study, debate, discussion, and enlightenment with respect to the issues at stake and the policies to be adopted. Provision should be

made to search into the nature of democracy, the causes of the failures of the past generation, the factors involved in the collapse of freedom in Europe—particularly in France—and the dangers that beset democracy both at home and abroad.

6. The elementary and secondary school, co-operating with the surrounding community, should systematically teach democracy to the younger generation. The life of the school should be organized in harmony with the central values of democracy: the conception of the dignity and worth of the individual; the principle of human equality and brotherhood; the processes of free inquiry, discussion, criticism, and group decision; the canons of personal integrity, honesty, and fairness; the idea of the obligation and the right to labor; the sense of devotion to the common good. The program of instruction should include a study of man's long struggle for freedom and dignity, of the whole course of American democracy, of the tensions and strains and conflicts in contemporary society, and of the competing philosophies and programs current today. The administration of the school should be redirected for the purpose of increasing the powers and enlarging the responsibilities of the teacher. And the entire program should be tied into the life and fortunes of the community. Also all present practices, methods, and materials of instruction should be carefully scrutinized and appraised from the standpoint of the values of democracy.

7. Colleges and universities should devote themselves far more than at present to the study of democracy—its nature, its history, its problems. They should inquire into the foundations of human liberty and seek the conditions under which free institutions can live and prosper. Also, they should guard with vigilant care the most precious of all their traditions—the hard-won tradition of freedom of teaching and learning.

8. Teachers should organize thoroughly, so that they may play a more active role both in framing educational policy and in shaping the life of community, state, and nation. They should be prepared to oppose every attempt on the part of powerful minorities to regiment their thought and teaching or to cast doubts on their fundamental loyalty to American democracy. In this struggle they would do well to work in close co-operation with all great popular groups, organizations, and movements, and particularly with the organized working people of the country.

9. The American public should devote great care to the selection of members of all boards controlling education. If the schools are to serve democracy, they must be kept close to the people. This means that men and women should be chosen for these vital posts who have been reared in, and are loyal to, the values of the great democratic tradition, and who can be counted upon to resist domestic as well as foreign brands of totalitarianism. Perhaps the surest way of getting such men and women is to seek for them in the ranks of the organized-labor movement of the country.

10. Finally, the schools and colleges are under special obligation to guard the humane and intellectual heritage of the race. They should set an example in

combating all forms of hysteria, in opposing bigotry and persecution, in defending the civil liberties, in championing the rights of minorities and the underprivileged, in maintaining a spirit of tolerance and charity. They should be ever sensitive to the wider and more permanent interests of society. They should strive to keep alive in these dark days of bitter strife the ancient hope of world-peace and human brotherhood.

#### WHY RURAL YOUTHS DO NOT ATTEND HIGH SCHOOL

FOR only a few sectors of the population in this country is high-school education not rather completely popularized by this time. Those sectors are the rural areas and that portion of the Negro populace for which high schools have not yet been made available. With these two sectors well served, the proportion of youths of high-school age in high school would move rapidly up from the present proportion of two-thirds toward something like nine-tenths of all.

The inaccessibility of schools for rural youth is emphasized again in the report of a study by N. G. Fadness, principal of the Kendall (Wisconsin) Public School, in the *Wisconsin Journal of Education*. The study concerns Monroe County, located in the central western part of the state. In the study Mr. Fadness had the co-operation of the county superintendent of schools and of the rural teachers. Although other reasons emerge among those most frequently cited, full interpretation of the evidence points to inaccessibility as the prevailing underlying cause. This inference is suggested by the following conclusions from the study.

1. The combined replies for the reasons, "unable financially to meet the expenses of going to high school," "really needed for work at home," "parents discourage or even oppose attendance in high school," account for 50 per cent or more of all responses. These reasons are closely tied up with farm income. Many farm parents feel financially unable to send their children to high school. The expense to parents of sending their boys and girls through high school is greater for farm families than it is for village and city families, especially when it is necessary for these farm youths to room and board in town during part or all of the school term. Farm tenancy and low farm productiveness in some areas are undoubtedly factors which help to augment the seriousness of the financial difficulty. School-bus service supported at least in part by state funds and free of charge to parents would be a most important factor in reducing this expense handicap incidental to high-school attendance of farm youth.

2. In a number of cases, work at home prevents farm boys and girls from attending high school. It is unwarranted that farm youth should be deprived of

their rightful educational privileges because of bad farm economics or because of parental selfishness. Free bus service would help in this situation insofar that the boys and girls would be at home mornings and evenings to help with farm duties. State law requiring all rural youth to attend high school until the age of sixteen would to some extent be a corrective measure. Better still would be to extend the high-school districts to include all rural areas, thereby making the present compulsory-attendance law automatically operative. At present, only two of the six high-school districts within the county include any rural area beyond the city or village limits. Less than 3 per cent of all the land area in the county is included in high-school districts. To include all the rural area of the county in high-school districts would also have the beneficial effects of broadening the tax base in support of the secondary schools and of creating a deeper mutual interest and concern in secondary educational opportunities for the farm boys and girls.

#### ATTRACTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS ON GOVERNMENT SERVICES, INDUSTRY, AND CRAFTSMANSHIP

THE National Youth Administration is issuing a series of pamphlets prepared to acquaint its project workers with some of the activities and accomplishments of the federal government, industry, and craftsmanship. The series is being published under the general title "The Modern World at Work," and its purpose is "to supply information about some of the services which the government renders for the people of the United States, about the way in which invention has stimulated the development of some of the great industries of the country, and about ways in which young men and young women of America can participate in productive work that will be of profit to themselves and to the nation." To date the following titles have been published: *Electricity* (No. 1), *Standards* (No. 2), *Agriculture* (No. 3), *Roads* (No. 4), *Automobiles* (No. 5), and *Weather* (No. 6). Other pamphlets are in preparation.

Each pamphlet, containing about fifty pages, is profusely illustrated with halftones and drawings, is written in clear and simple style, and contains a short list of "Books To Read" on the subject treated. The pamphlets in this series make excellent material for instruction in a number of different courses in secondary schools, for example, in the social studies and science. The pamphlets are for sale, for fifteen cents per copy, by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington, D.C.

## HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE nine innovations described in our "Here and There" for the month were reported from secondary schools in eight states scattered to all sections of the country—East, South, Midwest, and the Far West. The schools range in size from small rural to large urban secondary schools. The innovations spread to as wide a range of interests as the geographic distribution of the schools.

*Directory of recreational and educational agencies* At hand is a booklet listing and describing the educational and recreational activities offered by Bronx (New York) organizations to graduates of the Evander Childs High School, of which Hymen Alpern is principal. The pamphlet was prepared by members of the Presidents' Club (a club consisting of presidents of pupil organizations in the school) in conjunction with the Faculty Committee on Understanding America. Copies of the booklet have been distributed to all graduating pupils. Among agencies listed are the American Legion, Boy Scout Federation of Greater New York, Bronx Committee of Girl Scouts, Bronx Drama Center, Community Boys' Club, Jewish Center of University Heights, and the Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Association of the Bronx. This simple means of directing attention of graduates to educative and recreative agencies of a community should be used in many other schools in urban areas.

*An effective program for parents' school visitation* Novel arrangements have been worked out at the Community High School at Erie, Illinois, for parents' visits to the school. The district includes ninety-eight square miles, and the school, of which P. H. Di Vall is principal, enrolls about two hundred pupils, of whom three-fourths are from the rural territory surrounding Erie. The school authorities feel that they should keep the public informed about what the school is doing and why it is doing it. Several of the usual means had been used, such as a night session for visitors, visiting day, and a special educational day, but it had never been possible to get out more than 20-25 per cent of the school patrons. With the plan to be described, as many as 75 per cent of



the parents were induced to visit the school while it was in operation some time during the year.

The plan involved sending about fifteen cards to as many homes in the same neighborhood, asking parents to visit on a certain day but urging them, if they could not come on that day, to visit at any other convenient time. Several advantages of this plan may be cited. A definite time was set for parents to do a thing which, as all realized, they should do and would like to do. It did away with the feeling of parents that the teachers might not like to have them visit. It placed only a small number of visitors in the school on any one day and only one or two in any one class at a time, so that the school could run more normally than in most visiting systems. Pupils and teachers became accustomed to visitors. Parents saw the school as it operates every day, nothing unusual going forward on the visiting days.

The parents met in one room the first thing in the morning, were introduced to one another, and were given a program of classes for the day. During the day they were the special guests of their sons or daughters. An opportunity was provided at the close of the school day for parents to meet again to ask questions about any school activity concerning which they would like more information.

*Pageantry as a feature of programs for class night* K. Y. Carper, principal of the Salem Center High School at Pleasant Lake, Indiana, submits a description of a class-night program which he has found to "promote originality." In this program use is made of the pageant to combine "the history, will, and prophecy in any number of varied scenes." The particular program described consisted of "twenty living pictures which presented every member of the graduating class as he was, is, or hopes to be." The task of producing such an entertainment is simplified by making each group responsible for its own scene. Principal Carper reports that, after the script has been sketched, "it is an easy thing for an imaginative committee to concoct the scenes." Such a program can bring out numerous possibilities in variety of appeal to the audience through music, art, comedy, scenic effects, and costuming.

*A new course offering in international relations* An item appearing in the January, 1939, issue of the *School Review* reported on a course in "Human Relations" given at the Morgan Park High School in Chicago. Eston V. Tubbs, principal of the school, has submitted the outline of another new course, "International Relations."

This course holds as its purpose "to acquaint young people with the more important nations of the world today and to inform them of the manners, customs, and achievements of those peoples of the past who have made significant contributions to human progress." The course consists of twenty-three units. All units but the last are concerned with individual countries or groups of countries, as follows: Canada, England, Scandinavia, Germany, Poland, Russia, France, Spain, Italy, Greece, Egypt, Palestine, Phoenicia, Iraq, Iran, India, China, Japan, Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, and the United States. The last unit is called "General Synthesis."

*A "hospital" for training in the fundamental skills* Superintendent Harry Clark, of Knoxville, Tennessee, has announced the establishment of a "Three R's Hospital" to cure pupils in the city's junior and senior high schools of weaknesses in "fundamental schooling." Pupils at these school levels whose reading, penmanship, and practical arithmetic are "below par" will be taken from the regular classes and given an intensive short course of probably a few weeks' duration in "groundwork essentials." A large group of teachers in the system, with the co-operation of members of the University of Tennessee's Department of Psychology, laid plans for the course in remedial instruction.

*Demonstrations in light put on by class in physics* Sidney E. Lang, instructor in science, and George Rieben, principal of the Tule Lake High School (of the Siskiyou Union High School District in California), report that the "cleverly organized science demonstrations" seen at the San Francisco World's Fair had a stimulating effect on pupils and teachers alike. Soon after school started in the autumn a year ago, three of the more aggressive boys in the class in physics decided to work out a series of demonstrations along the lines of those seen at Treasure Island. The idea

proved so successful that the boys have performed before seven audiences.

The demonstrations first selected for development were black light, the stroboscope, and the electric eye. The black-light source was made by mounting a photo-flood lamp in an old automobile reflector and fastening an ultraviolet filter before it. Chemicals to make fluorescent paint cost \$2.70. The stroboscope was of the condenser and gas-bulb type. Direct current was supplied by a power-pack from an old radio. The boys assembled the stroboscope at a total cost of forty-nine cents, which was the price of a neon bulb. The electric eye was already on hand. Other equipment used consisted of batteries, bulbs, a motor, and other common equipment of the physics laboratory.

The demonstrations were first tried out before the local Rotary Club. The program was so well received that the boys were stimulated to work it up to a greater degree of perfection. Practice demonstrations were made before various classes, such as seventh- and eighth-grade classes in agriculture and classes in biology and physics. The practice demonstrations increased the boys' self-confidence. According to Messrs. Lang and Rieben, the "big chance" came when the boys were asked to put on their demonstration before the Rotary Club in a neighboring city. Several other pupils had by that time taken an interest in the work and had made some special fluorescent signs for use with black light. In this program the demonstrators were self-composed and competent. The audience was impressed and rewarded the boys with compliments and a check.

The benefits supposed to accrue from these demonstrations are many. The audiences were enlightened on these recent and important scientific subjects. The school has profited from the increased interest in science and favorable publicity. The boys themselves are better versed in the phases of science in which they worked and are more experienced in public address.

*Some new visual aids for use in chemistry classes* The Department of Chemistry in the Simon Gratz High School of Philadelphia, of which M. David Hoffman is principal, has been making use recently of new visual aids. The aids described by Harold J. Abrahams, of the staff of the school, are a

working model of a water-filtration system, an exhibit intended as a vigorous protest against the perversion of the chemistry of industry into the chemistry of destruction, a sulfanilamide exhibit, and an ultramicroscope. The water-filtration model is three by five feet in size and reproduces all the essential working parts of a municipal system, from the intake of polluted river water to the final process of chlorination. The second exhibit consists of two museum cases, one depicting a scene of "peace and plenty" made possible by agricultural use of potassium nitrate. The second case presents the picture of a terrific battle scene with the same chemical "gone wild." Thus, as Mr. Abrahams says, potassium nitrate is shown as "hero and villain and we may take our choice." The exhibit on sulfanilamide, which had recently made headlines in the news, included specimens of the raw materials of this highly useful drug, with ribbons leading to a piece of apparatus in which these materials undergo the synthesis toward becoming the finished product. The homemade ultramicroscope is one in which the Brownian movement may be seen in colloidal gold suspension.

*Phonograph records lent by a department of music* Principal J. R. Bullington of the West Side Junior High School of Little Rock, Arkansas, has initiated a plan of lending phonograph records to pupils. The plan was introduced by Miss Annie Stark Foster, head of the department of music in the school, in order to further the interest in music. The plan provides that each pupil may check out a record for a week end or for a night or two. Miss Stark and Principal Bullington believe that, because of the wealth of recorded selections, pupils do not find time in school to hear them. It is hoped that repeated hearings of particular selections will familiarize pupils with them and bring about a liking for them.

*Differentiating instruction for two pupil groups* The senior high school of Twin Falls, Idaho, has for a school year made a division of classes in Sophomore English, one group of classes being designated as distinctly college-preparatory in aim and the other group as meeting the particular needs and inter-

ests of pupils who do not plan to attend college. In the former group conventional grammar and literature were taught. In the other classes the material was "more practical," with less emphasis on grammar and more on oral speech and on reading of types within the interests and ability of the pupils represented. A similar division was effected during the second semester of last year for the classes in Senior English. In the college-preparatory sections emphasis was placed on composition and a review of grammar, while in the other sections emphasis was placed on oral speech, group discussions, reading of newspapers and magazines, and spelling. An analogous division was made in chemistry, where the college-going group was given the usual type of material, whereas to the other group was given a course in "consumer chemistry." Principal Edward B. Rogel reports that during the current school year similar differentiation is being extended to biology and to all other classes in English.

#### RAPID GROWTH OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

AT HAND is a copy of the "Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the United States Office of Education, Vocational Division," for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. It contains much interesting information concerning the status and the growth of vocational education, in a form comparable with reports for previous years. Among notable items is the total enrolment of 2,085,427 in vocational schools and classes for the year. This figure of over two millions represents a rapid increase for recent years—almost a doubling of the enrolment for the year ending in June, 1930, when it was 1,064,536. The increase has been rapid for all-day, part-time, and evening classes but apparently most rapid in the all-day programs.

Because it represents one of the latest developments, some special interest may attach to enrolments in "distributive-education" classes, that is, classes in preparation for the distributive occupations in business subsidized through provisions of the George-Deen Act passed in 1936. The enrolment in this field is restricted to two types of classes: "co-operative part-time" and "part-time and evening extension." The enrolments in the co-operative part-time classes reported for the two years 1938 and 1939 are 3,800 and 6,956, repre-

senting an increase of 93 per cent over the one-year interval. The enrolments in part-time and evening extension classes for the two years were 32,408 and 83,143, representing an increase of 156 per cent.

#### WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

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## MEETING THE NEEDS OF TERMINAL STUDENTS AT THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE LEVEL

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Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California

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MEETING the needs of terminal students constitutes the most significant, as well as the most difficult, problem in the junior college today. In the early years of the institution almost no person enrolled except the student of potential university caliber. For such a student the program of general education must be continued to the end of the fourteenth year, and a satisfactory and safe precedent has been set in the lower division of the standard college. Approximately a fourth to a third of the present enrolment belong to this group, and the junior college is satisfying their needs with a fair degree of success.

Since the economic crash of 1929, however, a vast change has taken place in the character of the junior-college population. Jobs have not been available for young people from sixteen to twenty years of age, and they have flocked to the junior college in such numbers that from 70 to 75 per cent of the present enrolment belong to the so-called "terminal group" who should never attempt a university career and whose needs call for a type of education different from the traditional, highly academic courses of the Freshman and Sophomore college years.

It will be conceded by all that every student, whether university-preparatory or terminal, requires a reasonable modicum of general education. Such education is imperative in the interests both of the maximum development of the individual's personality and of the part that he is destined to play as a member of a co-operative democratic society. For meeting the needs of the terminal student, therefore, two objectives must be kept in mind: first, provision must be made in his educational career for a reasonable amount of general education; second, he must finish his junior-college career in a cur-

riculum which will prepare him at graduation for a ready and secure entrance into the world of business or industry. Fulfilment of the second objective will require that, through an effective guidance program, he be made aware of his vocational aptitudes; that in his late high-school or early junior-college career he choose a vocation in which he stands the best chance for success; and that, through a program of education, easily possible at least in the four-year junior college embracing Grades XI-XIV, inclusive, and organized as a single institution, he should spend a part of Grade XII and all of Grades XIII and XIV in the pursuit of a curriculum built in large measure, if not exclusively, about his vocational objective. The assumption underlying such a program is that the general-education needs of the terminal student are much less extensive than are the needs of the university-preparatory student, who will ultimately emerge in one of the so-called "higher professions."

#### MAJOR AREAS OF HUMAN NEED

It is universally recognized that the function of general education is to administer to the common needs of man in the major areas. Writers in the field of curriculum construction have made many classifications of the major areas of human need. One writer classifies the common needs of man as follows: (1) individual, (2) socio-civic, (3) home life, and (4) vocational.<sup>1</sup> Another writer, working independently, has produced virtually the same classification except that he lists "physical and mental health" as a separate category. A more recent classification states that "popular education at the secondary-school level is defined and described as that education which seeks to increase the competence, viz., ability and willingness, of the groups of youth" along the following lines: "(1) to carry socio-civic responsibilities . . . (2) to carry socio-economic responsibilities . . . (3) to maintain and improve mental and physical health . . . and (4) to engage in recreational activities."<sup>2</sup> Many

<sup>1</sup> Ivol Spafford, "Problems and Progress in Curriculum Planning," "Report on Problems and Progress of the General College, University of Minnesota," p. 262. Prepared by the Staff of the General College. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1939 (mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup> Will French, "Popular Education at the Secondary-School Level," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 54.

other classifications have been made of the major areas of human need, but these will serve as examples and will also provide for us a general overview of the thinking of educators along this line. The similarity of these classifications is readily apparent.

MEETING THE GENERAL-EDUCATION NEEDS  
OF TERMINAL STUDENTS

While not wishing to apply uncritically the thinking of educators along this line, the writer wishes to point out that the basic needs of man are almost universally the same and are not conditioned by racial, geographical, or national boundary lines. In the light of popular discussion and experimentation, therefore, as well as the judgments of leading educators in the field, the writer presents the following analysis of the major areas of human need, the satisfaction of which constitutes the primary function of general education.

*Personal.*—Under this heading should be listed those needs which concern man as an individual, for example, the development of a worthy life-philosophy which should constitute a working guide to personal living. Such a philosophy involves (1) the capacity and the desire to discriminate in values and a determination on the part of the individual to appropriate to himself the good, the beautiful, and the true in the world about him to the end that in the course of his lifetime he may experience the most complete development possible of his individual personality; (2) the development of high ethical standards; (3) the framing of a guiding idealism; (4) the development of capacities which serve the individual, such as the cultivation of wholesome and worthy recreational activities; (5) the development of appreciations, as of art, music, and the aesthetic contributions of the race; (6) the development of aspirations, such as good will and the capacity to form and cultivate friendships; and many other objectives which are too numerous to name but which have the common characteristic of applying to the individual, as such, rather than to society as a whole.

*Physical and mental health.*—Under this category should be included those needs which contribute to the development and the maintenance of sound, healthy bodies and a wholesome mental outlook. This objective would involve the development within the individual of regular habits of rest, sleep, exercise, moderation, and

cleanliness; adequate knowledge and practice regarding diet; information concerning the effects of poisons and excessive use of stimulants; and the development of a balanced and integrated personality actuated by well-conceived and worthy life-objectives.

*Socio-civic responsibilities.*—This category includes the needs for co-operation of the individual with his fellows and for sharing with them the responsibilities and the privileges of a democratic society to the end that he may be surrounded by the social conditions which contribute most effectively to the maximum development of his personality and to the society of which he is a part.

*Home life.*—Within the area of home life fall those needs pertaining to the harmonious functioning of the family as a biological and a social unit and the individual's relation thereto.

*Vocational life.*—The vocational area embraces those needs which pertain to the selection of an appropriate lifework by which the individual will earn a living for himself and his family. This objective involves an adequate training for effective service within the field chosen.

It is the opinion of the writer that there rests upon the public-school system the obligation of adjusting all the children of the entire population for an effective present and future functioning in each of these major fields and that a reasonable orientation or adaptation within these major areas of human need constitutes a reasonable and practical concept of general education. He recognizes that the situation existing in each of these major areas is never static but is continuously changing and that a general education, therefore, must develop within the youth of the country a capacity for continuous orientation or adjustment to a constantly changing environment. He further believes that, with the exception of the training of those persons who select as their lifework one of the so-called "higher professions," preparation for which must be obtained in one of the professional schools of the university, the program of general education, providing for adequate orientation and competence for a continuous adaptation to the ever-changing needs within the major areas outlined above, can, with a proper organization of curriculum, be accomplished by the conclusion of the fourteenth year of school, or the junior-college period.

General education does not, therefore, embody any specific group of subjects or body of subject matter which should be required on the part of all individuals. It may, and probably will, vary in content from individual to individual, but it will assure for all a reasonable orientation as well as competence and creative adaptability in the major areas of human need.

It follows further from these hypotheses that there can be no hard and fast boundary line separating general and vocational education. Vocational education constitutes but a part of everyone's complete or general education.

#### MEETING THE VOCATIONAL NEEDS OF TERMINAL STUDENTS

The needs of terminal students cannot be met satisfactorily short of the completion of the junior-college years. In less time it is impossible for the student to acquire that degree of personal development and social competency, as well as an adequate vocational training, which his needs require. It has been pointed out in a number of studies that industry is not eager to take the student at an earlier age than approximately twenty, not because of any interest in chronological age itself, but solely because the student has not enough to offer to justify his employment before approximately that time. In order to train the student satisfactorily, therefore, the public school should retain its entire population through the junior-college years.

The basic need, even for terminal students, is an adequate core of general education. With a proper organization of the curriculum, this core can be given in the upper high-school years for terminal students, the junior-college years being thereby released for vocational orientation. This core of general education should be adapted to the abilities and the interests of the students. In other words, the curriculum should be adjusted to the students themselves; the students should not be forced to adjust themselves arbitrarily to a preconceived curriculum. This philosophy will necessarily imply a rather radical reorganization of traditional subject-matter offerings. It is a commonly recognized fact that subject-matter courses of the past, being organized almost exclusively on academic lines, have driven out of the school huge numbers of students for

whom these courses were ill-adapted but who were justly entitled to a continuation of their education through the secondary-school period. Extensive experimentation is in progress at the present time in the most progressive schools of the country in an effort to meet this problem. For the most part these experimental courses cut across subjects and departments and are aimed at the orientation of the student within the major areas of human need rather than the mastery of a narrow segment of some major field of learning. As one example of such a curriculum reorganization, the writer cites the core curriculum of Pasadena Junior College, which he presents for the sole reason that he is more familiar with that organization than with those in progress in other situations.

Every student entering Pasadena Junior College, which is a four-year unit extending from Grade XI to Grade XIV, inclusive, has been required to take in his first year a general group guidance course known as "Orientation"; a course in general biology, provided this subject has not been previously taken in Grade X; a general course in the physical sciences; and a general course in the humanities. In Grade XII there is required a general introductory course in the social studies and a course known as the "American Family," which is designed to orient the student in family life. At the present time the course in the "American Family" is required of the women only, but reorganization is under way as a result of which it will be required of the men as well. This core curriculum, with such exceptions as may be advisable in meeting the needs of individual students, has been required of all students matriculating in the college. On the completion of this core, university-preparatory students have pursued their general education for two additional years without any attempts at vocational or subject-matter specialization. Terminal students, on the completion of this core of general education, may devote their remaining two years to a curriculum built around their vocational interests.

Educators have pointed out the great need for vocational education at the junior-college level. They have told us, however, that junior colleges have not, as yet, realized the possibilities of this type of education. Huge numbers of students are flocking to the junior colleges with no intentions of transferring to the standard colleges



and universities, and this influx has placed before us the challenge of providing for this group of terminal students a type of education which articulates with the world of business and industry rather than with the higher reaches of the university.

In attempts to meet the needs of this large group of terminal students, some interesting experimentation is already under way. Most of the public junior colleges have recognized the peculiar needs of the terminal student and are at least making some gestures toward meeting them. Probably the majority of such students will prefer to continue their general education throughout the junior-college years even though not transferring to the university. These general courses, as pointed out previously, should be of a different character from those given to the university-preparatory student. For most of these students, however, the primary interest is one of obtaining vocational education. Fortunately it is possible to work out for these students curriculums which will provide both a reasonable modicum of general education and at the same time an easy entrance into their vocational choices. This vocational education should be on the semi-professional, rather than the trade or the professional, level. There is a tremendous need in the work of the world for this type of education. It is a field which public education in the past has neglected and one for which the junior colleges are particularly adapted.

Examples of vocational training on the semi-professional level which are being given in junior colleges are the following:

*Commercial education.*—Most of the public junior colleges give training in the commercial field. Most of these courses are in the subjects of merchandising, advertising, business administration, and secretarial training. These courses are built on a foundation of general education secured in the high-school years. There is a general feeling among secondary-school administrators that vocational education should be postponed to the junior-college level. The studies of Rainey and others<sup>1</sup> have shown that there is a well-founded reason for this policy in the industrial conditions precipitated by our ma-

<sup>1</sup> Homer P. Rainey, with the collaboration of Arthur L. Brandon, M. M. Chambers, D. L. Harley, Harry H. Moore, and Bruce L. Melvin, *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937.

chine civilization. Probably the most extensive vocational opportunities are to be found in the field of business, and it is only logical that the junior colleges should provide their most extensive vocational training in this field. One of the best junior-college terminal courses in business education is to be found at the Fullerton Junior College in California.

*Technology.*—Excellent vocational courses in the field of aeronautical, electrical, mechanical, civil, and architectural technology are provided in many public junior colleges. Certain private junior colleges more or less directly connected with industry have developed splendid courses in this field and have, in fact, done most of the pioneering. Such institutions are Pratt Institute, Dunwoody Institute, and the General Motors Institute of Technology. The Pasadena Junior College has achieved an extensive development in technical education at the junior-college level and has placed virtually all its graduates in the work for which they have prepared.

*Agriculture.*—Scientific training in agriculture is provided in many junior colleges throughout the West, the South, and the Pacific Southwest. One of the best agricultural vocational courses to be found in the state of California is that given in the Chaffey Junior College at Ontario. Not only is extensive vocational education given in this institution, but some intensive research projects have also been carried out with special application to the local agricultural region.

*Forestry.*—A number of junior colleges have introduced semi-professional courses in forestry. The Lassen Junior College, at Susanville, California, has provided most of the recruits for the forest service in its particular section of the country. In the university the regular four-year courses in forestry offer the applied work in the first two years and the theory in the last two. This practice creates a most favorable condition for the junior colleges because students who have completed the forestry course at the junior-college level may secure positions as lookouts in the forestry service and after this experience may, if they desire, transfer to the university for the completion of their course. This procedure is followed by many graduates of the junior courses in forestry.

*Nursing.*—One of the most important semi-professional courses is

nursing. A large number of junior colleges have co-operative arrangements with local hospitals and are offering splendid courses in the nursing vocation.

*Other courses.*—These are but examples of extensive possibilities for semi-professional vocational training at the junior-college level. Other vocational curriculums on the junior-college level of somewhat less popularity are the following: music, journalism, landscape design and floriculture, training for physicians' and dentists' office assistants, training for laboratory technicians, household arts, recreational leadership, cosmetology, and certain curriculums of a technological character which are more on the trade level than the semi-professional, such as automobile mechanics and sheet-metal work. Local communities will determine, in large measure, the character of vocational courses given in the junior college. If we may judge from present trends, we may assume that the vast majority of students in the public junior colleges will find their chief interest in semi-professional training. Probably not more than a fourth of the students enrolling in public junior colleges either can or should transfer to the university for professional training.

#### CALIFORNIA STATE SURVEY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AT THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE LEVEL

Under the direction of Aubrey A. Douglass, chief of the Division of Secondary Education of the State Department of California, a survey of vocational education at the junior-college level is being made by a committee of junior-college administrators. In the course of its investigation the committee has found itself confronted with a number of practical problems to which it is endeavoring to find a solution. Some of the most significant of these problems are the following:

1. What courses, if any, should be required in the junior college to achieve the objectives of general education? In this connection the committee will ascertain what courses are now actually required and what courses, in the opinion of the administrators, should be required of all students regardless of curriculum.

2. Is it possible to achieve the objectives of general education in a curriculum the courses of which are built *exclusively* around the stu-

dents' vocational objectives? Many students of vocational education believe that there are great possibilities for general education in the vocational courses themselves. For example, in a curriculum of vocational technology, English might be taught through the course dealing with technical reports, social science through a course in industrial organizations, art through the drafting classes, and mathematics in connection with the technical laboratory projects. A reasonable modicum of general education could conceivably be provided, then, for the vocational students without encroaching in the slightest degree on the time required for vocational education.

3. Should vocational education at the junior-college level be general in character (prepare only for general orientation or adjustment within a major vocational field), or specific (prepare for a particular vocational activity), or dual (provide some orientation or adjustment and some specific preparation for a particular vocation)?

4. Should vocational curriculums in the junior college consist exclusively of vocational training, or should some general or liberalizing courses be required?

5. Should the junior college set up short-unit courses, of from two to six weeks in length, to prepare for specific jobs?

6. Should courses of a trade character be set up in the junior college?

7. Are junior colleges justified, ignoring legal aspects, in offering vocational curriculums which require more than two years above the high school for completion? This policy is being practiced in a number of California junior colleges. Needless to say, it constitutes an extremely questionable procedure. It is almost tantamount to a surrender of the junior-college idea. It also raises a serious financial question, since many local communities probably cannot finance adequately a program of public education extending for more than two years above the high school. Possibly this condition may have been precipitated by a lack of co-operation between high school and junior college.

8. What administrative machinery can be set up which will facilitate the co-operation of junior colleges with the directors of trade and industry and with the leaders of organized labor?

9. Should vocational training be established in junior colleges on a year-round basis?

10. Would it be advisable for the junior colleges of California to co-operate in setting up vocational education on a *regional* basis, whereby one junior college in a given area would concentrate on agricultural training, another in the same area on business education, and still another on technology, etc.? This plan would require legal provisions permitting students to commute from one district to another on some acceptable co-operative plan, and it would distribute vocational training among a group of junior colleges rather than expect every college, as at present, to meet the vocational needs of its entire population.

#### A FINAL WORD

In conclusion, it may be stated that, with virtually the entire eligible population enrolling in the public junior colleges, an adequate guidance program becomes an indispensable adjunct to vocational training. A good guidance program which extends down through the high-school and junior high school levels will assist the student in planning his life-career. With such a functioning program the student, when he enrolls in the junior college, will know what his primary interests and adaptabilities are and can, under guidance, select a type of lifework for which he is best endowed.

Going hand in hand with guidance and vocational training must be an adequate placement service. Nothing is so essential in the development of vocational courses as the assurance in the minds of the students that placement is virtually certain on the satisfactory completion of the course. While only a beginning has been made in this great function of the junior college, it may truly be said that junior-college administrators have sensed their responsibilities and are courageously pioneering in an effort to provide satisfactory vocational training for their terminal students.

## AN EXPERIMENT IN COMMUNITY CO-ORDINATION

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OTSEGO has a population of thirty-three hundred and is located on the banks of the Kalamazoo River fifteen miles northwest of Kalamazoo. The city has three paper mills and one co-operative milk-products plant, which provide the chief industry of the community. The population, almost entirely American born, is largely of the white race and would be considered stable since about half of the families have lived in the community for over fifteen years. The fact that the average family is smaller than that of other communities indicates that the community is becoming one of older people. The citizens' interest in education is shown by their consistent provision of good school facilities and by the education of the community members: 22 per cent of the adult population have high-school educations and 8 per cent have had college training. The chief problems of Otsego, like those of most small cities, are unemployment for both youth and adults and the lack of the right kind and amount of social and recreational advantages. These problems exist in spite of the fact that for a number of years the people of Otsego have been active in solving their problems through the activities of more than fifty local organizations. These organizations seem to duplicate one another in many ways, and effort is lost in co-ordinating activities sponsored for the benefit of the community.

In March, 1939, a group of citizens of Otsego met to discuss plans for community betterment and elected a Community Health and Social Service Committee to study the local needs and to make a report of their conclusions. The committee, becoming interested in surveys as a means of collecting data regarding the community, conducted a house-to-house canvass to determine the medical and the dental needs of children of preschool age. In April the committee, co-operating with the Civic Council, a local organization of business



and professional people, held a public meeting, at which Professor Howard Y. McClusky, of the University of Michigan, spoke on community co-ordination. The people showed much interest in this subject and spoke of a number of apparent needs in Otsego. They were particularly interested in a community-betterment program, based on democratic principles, in which the whole community could have a part. Owing to the many interests in the community, as shown by the discussions, the committee decided that a survey was necessary to discover data regarding local problems and the available human and material resources which could be used in the community-betterment program.

Early in the autumn a special survey committee was appointed to draw up a questionnaire and conduct the survey. During October and early November Mr. H. B. Masters, adult education consultant of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, met with the survey committee on several occasions and gave valuable advice and furnished written information. On December 11 another general meeting of the citizens of Otsego was held to explain the questionnaire and the proposed method of conducting the survey. The public showed much interest in the discussion, and plans were made to begin the survey on the following day.

The city was divided into twenty-one sections, with special workers in charge of each area. Since the survey was also to cover the surrounding rural community, rural workers were appointed to take charge of these sections. In this way every home was visited by a worker, who left a letter explaining the purpose of the survey; a "family sheet," which dealt with data concerning the entire family; and a number of "individual sheets," which sought information from every adult in the community over sixteen years of age not attending high school. The high-school pupils were not asked to make out the questionnaires because they were given an opportunity to express their opinions on community problems in a special questionnaire administered by the student council at the school. When the questionnaire blanks were delivered at the homes, their purpose was again briefly explained to at least one member of each family, who was requested to see that the blanks were filled out and made ready for collection three or four days later. The workers were asked to seek

the co-operation of the citizens by making all necessary explanations and to offer any help needed in filling out the questionnaires.

It was most encouraging to witness the enthusiasm and the co-operation of the community in this project. Sixty-five per cent of the individual questionnaires were filled out and returned, and 97 per cent of these reported a willingness to co-operate in another survey if necessary. More than 190 persons took active parts in conducting the survey and tabulating the results.

Two evenings in January were set aside to summarize the answers to the questions. The summarizing was done by about forty teams of two workers each. One team of workers tabulated the answers to a single question from all the collected sheets and passed them on to the next team. This method proved to be faster, easier, and more accurate than having one team tabulate the data from all questions on a sheet. Supervisors in charge made sure that the teams of workers understood the methods to be used in these tabulations. The supervisors also kept constant check on the accuracy of the work.

The survey touched on many phases of community life, but the number of questions answered and the comments made indicated that questions of recreation, health, school activities, adult education, and the city library held the greatest amount of interest. The data were interpreted and recommendations were prepared by members of the survey committee, who made a report at a public meeting in January. Besides the general public which attended, the city organizations sent official representatives to determine the next step that the community should take. One of the most important recommendations made was that the citizens form a co-ordinating council, made up of from ten to fifteen representatives of local organizations, which should co-ordinate the many activities of the community and endeavor to bring about a unity of effort and to provide a planned program. The membership of the council was limited to fifteen because experiences in other communities have shown that a small group works together more easily and accomplishes more than a large, unwieldy group. This council was approved and organized with a membership of thirteen. Since there are more than fifty organizations in Otsego, it was necessary that several be represented

by one member. The following representation for the co-ordinating council was outlined: three members elected at large, two members representing the Federated Rural Clubs, one member representing the Civic Council, one member representing the men's organizations (lodges, American Legion, etc.), one member representing the women's organizations (lodges, American Association of University Women, literary societies, etc.), one member representing the city council, one member representing the out-of-school youth, one member representing the high-school pupils, one member representing the churches, and one member representing the local industries.

The new Community Co-ordinating Council started work in March on some of the most urgent community needs revealed by the survey.<sup>1</sup> A few activities have already begun as a result of the answers to the questionnaire, but, of course, more time is needed to determine the ultimate value of the entire project. The outcome of the survey depends, more than anything else, on the lasting interest that the community will have in the program. The leadership and the personnel of the council will also play a major role in keeping the public interested and the project alive. The development of a common interest in the community and an increased spirit of co-operation are the most valuable assets.

<sup>1</sup> The survey questionnaires, the results, and the recommendations are not discussed in this article because of lack of space and because such a detailed report would not be of interest to the casual reader. Those who are interested in the questionnaires and a summary of the data may obtain them from the writer of this article or may read an excellent report in an unpublished Master's thesis entitled "Community Self-survey in Otsego," by Catherine Poppen, which will soon be on file in the library at the University of Michigan.

## HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS EVALUATE THE SOCIAL-STUDIES PROGRAM

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IN THE continuous evaluation and reorganization of social-studies programs in American secondary schools, an important factor to be considered is the pupils' desires and their opinions of their needs. More and more is attention being given to those areas of study which youth itself feels are necessary for complete living. A committee of Los Angeles County secondary-school teachers recently made a survey<sup>1</sup> of the social-studies program in Grade XII in which cognizance was taken not only of present programs and the opinions of educators but also of the expressed desires of several thousand pupils. The purpose of this article is to present a brief summary of the findings of pupil interests as revealed by that survey.

A questionnaire was submitted to approximately three thousand pupils in nine Los Angeles County high schools: Beverly Hills, Citrus, El Segundo, El Monte, Excelsior, Leuzinger, Montebello, South Pasadena, and Whittier. Effort was made to obtain a cross-section of pupil opinion which should be as representative as possible. Some of the high schools chosen were predominantly rural, and others were urban. Several had large proportions of pupils of foreign parentage, and in others the pupils were largely of native parentage. The questionnaire contained 102 items, with space for topics to be added by the pupils. No signature was called for. Each pupil was asked to check with the figure "1" the ten items that he thought would be most important to him personally as topics for study in the eleventh- and twelfth-grade courses in social studies, to

<sup>1</sup> Louis T. Jones, "Survey of Twelfth Grade Social Studies," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (April, 1940), 222-24.

check with the figure "2" the second ten in importance, and to place a "3" opposite the ten items deemed of least importance. All other items were to be left blank.

Table 1 presents the ten items ranked by the pupils as of greatest importance to them personally, the ten rated as of second importance, and the ten rated least important.

TABLE 1\*

THE TEN ITEMS MOST FREQUENTLY CHECKED AS OF GREATEST IMPORTANCE  
THE TEN MOST FREQUENTLY CHECKED AS SECOND IN IMPORTANCE, AND  
THE TEN MOST FREQUENTLY CHECKED AS OF LEAST IMPORTANCE

Item	Frequency of Checking	Item	Frequency of Checking
Items rated most important:		Items rated second in importance	
2. How to develop personality.....	1,068	(continued):	
3. How to get along with people.....	875	1. How to know my own abilities.....	427
1. How to know my own abilities.....	710	6. How to budget income.....	418
47. How to apply for a job.....	699	3. How to get along with people.....	408
44. How to select an occupation.....	688	11. How to conduct conversation.....	385
15. How to select a life-mate.....	590	93. How to speak in public.....	385
11. How to conduct conversation.....	555	45. Preparing for an occupation.....	363
17. Essentials to happy marriage.....	539	Items rated least important:	
45. Preparing for an occupation.....	522	87. How to use leisure hours.....	333
4. How to act in public.....	464	32. Facts about tobacco.....	299
Items rated second in importance:		85. Motion-picture selection.....	280
47. How to apply for a job.....	549	31. Facts about alcohol.....	276
4. How to act in public.....	467	88. How and where to travel.....	273
5. How to select right clothing.....	428	97. Duties of the citizen.....	265
14. How to select companionship.....	428	99. Fascism, nazism, etc.....	254
		100. How courts operate.....	253
		13. How to write letters.....	248
		33. Widespread unemployment.....	248

\*Twelfth Grade Social Studies Committee, Los Angeles County Schools, "Report of a Survey of Twelfth Grade Social Studies," p. 11. Los Angeles, California: Division of Secondary Education, County Superintendent of Schools, 1940. This table is used by permission of C. C. Trillingham, assistant superintendent.

The ten items chosen most frequently as of most importance fall into three general categories: first (and seemingly most important), personal development (Items 2, 3, 1, 11, and 4); second, economic adjustment (Items 47, 44, and 45, and probably some of the others indirectly); and, third, family adjustment (Items 15 and 17). The

implication would appear to be clear that pupils answering the questionnaire wished their social-studies work in the senior high school to be concerned directly with life-problems and not with historical abstractions. Furthermore, they wished their high-school work to be valuable in helping each of them to develop his own capacities and abilities as a direct means of coping with the world-problems soon to be faced. As the survey committee aptly stated, "How to introduce instruction intended to meet this latter demand today constitutes a very definite problem in modern education and curriculum-building."<sup>1</sup>

In the case of the ten items given the most importance as "second choices," it will be noticed that six topics (Items 47, 4, 1, 3, 11, and 45) are also included among the first ten, the importance of these items being thereby greatly emphasized. Of the remaining four, three (Items 5, 14, and 93) are directly related to personal development, and the fourth (Item 6) falls in the economic-adjustment group.

In contrast with the topics which pupils felt were the most important, it is interesting to note those selected as of least importance. It should not be assumed that, because these items were listed as of little importance, they do not have a direct bearing on pupil development. Rather, might the implication not be that the relation between some of these topics and those listed as most essential has not yet been grasped by many pupils? For example, "How to use leisure hours," the item checked by more pupils than any other as being of little importance, certainly is closely related to the points concerning which these same pupils were most enthusiastic, such as "How to develop personality" and "How to get along with people." Much the same comment could be made concerning "Motion-picture selection." The problem here would appear to be that of making more meaningful, in the classroom and through other school activities, the nature of leisure-time use in relation to personal development.

Probably, too, some of the items checked as having little importance were so listed because of their seeming remoteness from the personal life of the pupil. "How and where to travel," for example, is probably not an immediately pressing problem to most high-

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 11.



school youths. "Fascism, naziism, etc.," headline topics in the newspapers, do not compare personally with the importance of "How to know my own abilities so that I, Johnny Jones, can make my own way in the world." The duties of the citizen and the operation of the courts are factors concerned with less closely connected groups, and, as a rule, the high-school pupil's life centers in his primary relationships. The extension of interests to social groups and processes and problems not connected immediately with his daily life or the near future is one of the tasks of the school, but the how of doing it looms as a most perplexing problem.

Supplementing the statistical findings are the comments made at the end of the questionnaire by many pupils. Only a sampling can be given here, but these few will serve to illustrate the general tenor.

Many of these comments, of course, were valueless. Of this type are the following, which show interest but no critical evaluation:

I think this is a swell idea, and I hope it can be carried out.

I think this is a grand idea, and I wish it could be put into effect soon.

I think this is a worth-while development in the schools of America.

Several pupils made general comments of interest:

The topics listed would be particularly valuable to one not planning on attending college.

A great number of these items should be and are thought of at home; the school should teach things that boys and girls would not be able to learn at home or the things which take equipment not available at home.

The school should teach the student how to enjoy life, what to look forward to; show him that he is only one little person in the world; show him all the things he has missed.

I believe that the "social-living" type of teaching should be given only to those students who are sure of not doing college or university work. The "social-living" period deprives those students who wish to take extra subjects in an engineering course of the extra period that is necessary.

On the whole, the more pertinent comments fall into two broad classifications, one concerning the curriculum and course material and the other touching on methodology. A large number of pupils requested courses which have no connection with social science, such as aviation, agriculture, hygiene, costume design, nursing, interior decorating, and photography. Pupils, however, are not compar-

mentalized in their thinking; they tend to see their needs as a whole instead of being bounded by departmental lines. Out of the maze of course material requested, one finds such comments as the following:

I and many other youths have no knowledge of marriage.

Classes in social problems, making homes, happy marriages.

How to develop the right kind of a home.

How to choose the right kind of a mate.

How to prevent child labor.

More stress on religion and the philosophy of our beliefs.

The main idea should be how to get a job and how to hold it.

Some knowledge of parliamentary law.

Courtship and happy marriage.

I suggest that a driving course be put in under the supervision of the police department, in which students would learn traffic laws and how to become good drivers.

I think subjects dealing with youth.

Certainly, social-science courses at the secondary level can well afford to give serious consideration to such requests as are implied in these statements. One particularly vehement pupil advocated that the school "cut out study of history as much as possible and concentrate on the present. Try to have more vocational studies in the classroom." Several pupils supplemented their statements regarding courses with the wish that there could be more advice on personal problems and personal direction:

Psychology of students and their individual problems. The understanding of each student and what he is able to do.

I think that there should be offered to students free personality and vocational tests and guidance in selecting careers.

I believe that as soon as a student has firmly made up his mind as to what he intends to do as a vocation in life, every effort should be made to plan his studies so he may receive the greatest benefit from them.

In this brief summary of comments on course material the following criticisms are pertinent:

I think that many things are taught in school which we will have no use for in later life. In order to take the necessary academic work required for college, it is hard to fit nonacademic work into your program, such as music, art, domestic science, and business courses.

I think it would be better if more time were given to teaching more practical things instead of memorizing the dates of important battles, etc.; to preparing us if there is a reverse in our finances so we could be prepared for it by being able to work at something.

Could there not be a fine-arts type of study, where music, especially classical, could be heard, enjoyed, and studied? Many students like the finer music and would welcome a course of this type.

As might be anticipated, the majority of comments touched the how rather than the what—the methods of study and teaching rather than the things taught. Many were the requests for more motion pictures in the classroom, although requests were not lacking for lectures, outside speakers, laboratory work, and projects. Even outside reading had its advocates, while one pupil felt that, in order “to make school work more worth while, I suggest more work done by the teacher. More time should be spent, with the teacher spending the greater part of the period explaining the subject to be studied.” However, by far the greater number of comments in this category advocated more classroom discussion. The following are typical:

I think that the American problems class should be a discussion class. Let the pupils ask questions about the things they would like to know. Then discuss the question and try to make it interesting and worth while. Talk so everyone will listen.

I think that the students should take part in the work as much as possible. There should be lots of discussion and oral work, getting the views that the students have to offer.

I believe research work should be done by the student first. Then discussion on the topics should follow. The students should be divided into groups during discussion so that those not interested in one topic could get together and discuss the topics they are interested in.

Give every student an opportunity to express his own opinion without jeering or laughing at him. Make school a pleasure instead of a bore.

Keep the students interested by letting them participate daily instead of just once every two or three weeks at test time.

The time arrangement of the classes came in for comment, most of it adverse. Home work likewise was not ignored:

The class period should last only fifty minutes instead of one hour. In this way, by starting school at 7:20 the students could be out at 12:20. Those who

have to work would have more time, and those out for sports could practice at a more worth-while time.

I think we should have one day for study, one for class discussion, and one for reading or listening to world-news, another for study, and then a test about once every two weeks. Have it systematic, a special day for each item.

With four solids and four teachers making assignments and no study hall, it is absolutely impossible to devote the necessary and proper time to a subject. Teachers should make no assignments over week ends, thus allowing students time to read, relax, and enjoy themselves and to do extra-credit work.

School work should be planned to have in the daily routine at least one play period or a social gathering. This gathering should have dancing and other social problems which confront the average student.

Instead of a student study hall there should be more time during class to study, and the twenty-minute study period we are supposed to have now should be observed.

Build proper types of buildings in which students can honestly study.

Several pupils expressed the need for definite instruction in how to study. The need for this instruction in the first year of college is recognized, and here is evidence that it is also felt by many pupils at the high-school level:

Definite class on methods of obtaining the most from lectures, class discussions, and other worth-while educational things. Learn how to prepare for tests: taking notes, writing themes, presenting materials, etc.

Teachers should teach students when they first enter high school how to study. Impress upon them the value of study.

In the ninth, tenth, and eleventh years teach how to study, take notes, how to write book reports. These should be taken up more thoroughly instead of waiting until the twelfth year to cram it down our throats all at one time.

Some pupils indicated that they had not been obtaining an impartial presentation of current social events and implied desire for such impartiality:

In most of your history, government, civics, and political-science classes, allow the teacher to give the whole story, not one side of it. Do not employ reactionary teachers.

Should take more time in explaining complicated subjects; don't just skip over the most important parts and spend time on easy parts.

Up-to-the-minute education is what is needed. The teacher should be practical, broadminded, and not hold any ideas of their own [sic]. We want to know both sides of the story, not the one the teacher sees.

As this summary of pupil opinion comes to a close, the writers cannot help giving one additional comment, evidently from an advocate of the *status quo*: "I think the class is conducted in good form now without any changes."

This brief summary of pupil reactions regarding twelfth-grade social studies has not presented any new or startling findings. Rather have the statistical data and the statements of opinion simply added weight to the generally recognized fact that pupils' interests center primarily in the personal and the immediate rather than in the abstract and the remote. Both sets of factors are imperative in a well-rounded social-studies program. As an increasingly complex culture pattern makes ever more necessary the prolonging of the holding-power of the secondary school, the problem is not that of constructing the social-studies program merely around the immediate and the personal but that of making these near-by subjects illuminating stepping-stones to pupil understanding of the essential in the abstract and the remote.

## TECHNIQUE OF THE INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE

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THE conference period is a vital part of the day of every Chicago high-school teacher. During this period individual conferences are conducted as part of the guidance program. Since time in the conference room is limited, it is important that each counselor be familiar with the techniques which have proved most effective in the individual conference.

### GENERAL REQUISITES OF THE SUCCESSFUL CONFERENCE

Privacy is the first requisite of any interview. In every Chicago high school a special room called the "conference room" is set aside, in which pupils meet teachers by appointment. Because several teachers use the room during each period, it takes planning to insure any degree of privacy for the interview. The thoughtful teacher seats the pupil to be interviewed at a desk in some quiet corner of the room. No pupil can be natural if what he says is overheard by six or seven teachers and as many fellow-pupils.

The approach to the interview is of utmost importance. The experienced counselor knows that a good interview is directed conversation. A feeling of friendliness and understanding should be present. Only in that atmosphere will the pupil unfold his innermost thoughts and emotions without realizing that he is doing so. Pupil-personnel work no longer deals with the "problem child" only, for the gifted are interviewed and advised, as well as those who are failing or indifferent. Getting information from individuals in a kindly way is a definite technique which requires skill.

The interview proves most successful if it is begun informally. If the counselor is resourceful, he has previously reviewed all available records on file for the pupil being interviewed in order to discover any real interests that the boy or girl may have. Educators realize



that here is the real function of cumulative records; they give the teacher a preview of the pupil and, if properly interpreted, tell a great deal about him.

Having found what seems to be the pupil's chief interest, the adviser has certain opening topics ready long before the interview takes place. To plunge directly into this type of directed conversation makes for a stilted interview, and the pupil feels that he is being submitted to an inquisition. Even the weather may be a good starting-point, or the recent world-series. When the interviewer talks with the young person about something in which they have a common interest, a spirit of comradeship is established, and the teacher may effectively begin tapping the interests of the pupil. There is no one rule governing the way to acquire facts about a person; every interview must be individual and, therefore, different from every other. In view of this fact, a counselor who is serious about his work disregards any stereotyped list of questions to fire at prospective victims. There is no set of questions in the world which fits all cases. Each interview begins differently from all others and ends differently.

The efficient counselor has a pad of paper handy on which he jots down a word now and then. It is never good practice to take down what the pupil says, word for word. To tell a teacher certain facts is one thing; to have him write them down in black and white, quite another. Directly after the interview it is a good plan for the counselor to jot down impressions that have been gained while they are still fresh in his mind. After the interview is concluded, the pupil should feel that the time was well spent. A good point to stress throughout is that every person can do more than one thing well, that there are alternative possibilities for every individual.

#### TYPES OF INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES

There are four distinct types of interviews, each having its own purpose. The voluntary interview, of course, is desirable since it indicates that the pupil has a felt need and seeks the help of the teacher because of that felt need. The survey interview is effective in helping pupils plan their programs in a "careers course," where it is necessary to explore the field of vocations. The special-problem interview is the most common type. It takes in all interviews with pupils who

have study problems. It embodies conferences with gifted pupils seeking further goals and also counseling which aims to be preventive instead of curative. The last type, the psychoanalytic interview, is used more extensively by experts in the field of child study than by teachers.

#### MAJOR AREAS OF EMPHASIS IN THE CONFERENCE

During an interview the inquiry should be pointed toward the pupil's entire background. There should be major areas of emphasis: physical factors, mental factors, social responses, emotional reactions, and vocational possibilities. In all, the teacher's objective should be to get an overview of the whole child.

Along physical lines the counselor will want to know about the pupil's health in early childhood since it oftentimes has a bearing on the pupil's health at the time of the conference. Included also should be facts about the pupil's weight and height, his vision, hearing, speech, his general appearance, and his tendency to fatigue.

In considering mental factors, the adviser is primarily interested in aptitudes and abilities in relation to what the pupil is fitting himself for, as against what he is fit for. At this point standard aptitude tests help because they measure present performance, an aptitude being nothing more than a person's ability to accomplish things with training. There is no point in encouraging a pupil to become a certified public accountant if he lacks the mental equipment necessary to succeed in an examination which is passed by only four persons out of every hundred. He must be shown other possibilities.

Social responses are important to the person trying to help a pupil. This survey must include information concerning the home background of the child, as well as the community environment. Oftentimes the necessary facts are most easily acquired through direct home contact. Some teachers use a pupil "Home Environment Scale" effectively. The social adjustment or maladjustment of a pupil in his home, at school, or elsewhere is often an index to the why of poor scholarship. An individual is judged all his life by his responses to social situations. In later life people will not pause to ask him how to compute square root, but they will approve or condemn him on the basis of how he acts toward accepted things. Correct social attitudes are part of every good citizen's equipment. It is

the sacred duty of every counselor in the case of unsocial behavior to get at the why of it. Perhaps the home is to blame. Perhaps the school has been amiss. Perhaps some deep frustration lies at the root of the trouble.

The emotional reactions of the pupil are considered against the background of all other information obtained about him. His interests, his likes, and his dislikes cannot be overlooked. His relations with his family, with companions, and with schoolmates must all be viewed. His attitudes toward institutions and conventions should be recorded. In short, when the interview is over, the counselor should have a pretty good idea about the emotional reactions of the pupil. To the adolescent, feelings are unusually important, and the counselor must handle the situation tactfully. Naturally people of high-school age resent prying. By using the Bernreuter Personality Inventory or some other good personality scale, the teacher will get an insight into the emotional world of his pupils which he could get by no direct method.

The emphasis in the interview on the vocational angle is of great importance, since all must sooner or later earn a living. Youth must, first of all, be helped to recognize that there is a vocational problem. It is the duty of the adviser to help pupils know personal abilities and the special abilities needed for specific occupations. The counselor should see that every pupil whom he interviews knows where to get materials on occupations. The public library, of course, is an excellent source. The *Occupational Index* (formerly published by the National Occupational Conference, now published by Occupational Index, Incorporated, New York University) is really a summary of all vocational publications. The United States Office of Education issues bulletins regularly. The *Vocational Guidance Digest* (published monthly by the Stanford University Press) should be used by every counselor as a handbook, while all teachers should make use of several of the twenty-nine occupational publications of the National Youth Administration of Illinois.

#### SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES AND EVALUATION OF THE CONFERENCE

The standardized test is a definite technique which should be used as an aid to the interview. Where cumulative records are kept, as in

the Chicago educational plan, these ratings become significant over a period of four years. A counselor should never take as conclusive the ratings of any one person; the opinion of five is accepted as a fair number in any case study. If the quality that is rated is complex, more ratings should be made.

The importance of home visits as aids to the individual conference cannot be overemphasized. If the home is approached in the right spirit, much good comes of the visits. The autobiography may also be used effectively as an aid in the personnel interview. The pupil should be encouraged to feel free to put his innermost thoughts and feelings into the paper because his confidence will be respected by the teacher. It is often helpful to suggest that the pupil trace definite tendencies in his life from the time of birth to the time of writing the autobiography. If he is encouraged to be himself, the result is often a revelation.

The purpose of the individual interview is threefold. First, it aims to get information about the pupil. Second, it aims to make an honest diagnosis of the individual based on the facts secured. Third, the personal conference enables the counselor to formulate an appropriate plan of action. The teacher must be honestly interested in the pupil, or the interview will fail. The adviser must vary the amount of talking that he does during the conference. He should act in a leisurely manner and make no effort to rush the pupil. Pupils vary in the speed with which they can face their own problems. It is well for a teacher to develop the interview habit and to put off the asking of direct questions until the pupil is ready to give information. The teacher can be frank with the pupil, but at no time should a sermon be forthcoming no matter what sin has been committed. The counselor should attempt to present the material objectively and to check all information against other information. At no time should the teacher be guilty of interpreting single facts about the pupil. The pupil should feel that the interview is a co-operative enterprise between his adviser and himself.

The individual conference, as it is now conceived, should not be used for disciplinary purposes. There are certain questions which every teacher should ask himself in evaluating his own personnel service to his pupils. Is a need for the interview recognized by the

pupil? Is there a genuine desire on the part of both teacher and pupil to solve a problem? Do the two parties involved in the interview have faith in each other? Are the suggestions of the counselor realistic? Are alternate possibilities discussed? Are all areas of the problem at hand included? Are resources for help made more available? Is the interview a twenty-minute affair, or is it a process? Does the pupil become more self-directing or more dependent on the counselor? Is the individual conference a mutual exchange of ideas? Does the pupil feel that progress has been made? Does the interviewer respect the confidence of the pupil? Is the interview adjusted to the maturity of the pupil?

These questions, and many more, must be answered by every teacher who takes seriously his job as educational guide. The ideal counselor believes that human beings can be helped, that each pupil interviewed is a changing, growing personality. Respect for the personality of every boy or girl is part of the good adviser's creed. He creates situations in which the pupil will become more self-directing. He offers no prescriptions. His job is to help pupils face their problems squarely. The ideal counselor looks on his job as a continuous process requiring faith and understanding between teacher and pupil. He aspires to make counseling an art founded on fact.

## CONTINUANCE IN COLLEGE OF HIGH-SCHOOL FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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**W**HETHER a high-school course in foreign language is, in any fundamental sense, "college preparatory" is questionable if relatively few of the pupils make use of their high-school work when they proceed to college. If the average college student does not continue the foreign-language course taken in high school, to what extent can the work be considered college preparatory beyond providing a "ticket of admission" to the university?

The investigation reported in this article attempts to measure the extent to which high-school courses in foreign language are really "preparatory" as measured by the percentages of pupils who actually continue in college the foreign-language work taken in high school or who become college majors in the language which they began in high school.

The data for this investigation were compiled from the students' high-school transcripts of record and their records of work at Stanford University as members of the class of 1930-34 (429 cases) or 1934-38 (668 cases). The findings are quantitative answers to questions proposed.

*What percentage of the pupils beginning a foreign language in high school continue the same language in college?*—Of all the students included in this investigation who entered Stanford University with high-school credit in Latin, French, Spanish, or German, 27.1 per cent continued the language in college. In 1930, 32.1 per cent continued.

It is obvious, however, that 32.1 per cent does not mean that 32 students out of every 100 who enrolled in beginning foreign-language



classes in high school continued the same language in college. It means that, of every 100 students who entered college with foreign-language credit from high school, 32 continued the foreign-language work at Stanford University. Since all students who enrol in beginning foreign-language classes in high school obviously do not continue in college, the actual percentage of the total number of students who began a language in high school and continued in college is much lower. It is estimated that only 26 per cent of the students who enter high school continue in college or university work.<sup>1</sup> If this percentage is used as a criterion, the actual percentage of students who begin language work in high school and continue in college is probably not over 8.

Although this conclusion is based exclusively on data gathered from Stanford University, there is good reason to believe that the findings are not atypical of conditions in other parts of the country. In 1932, for example, E. F. Engel<sup>2</sup> found that only 20 per cent of the pupils who entered the University of Kansas with high-school credit in foreign languages continued their language work in college. Assuming that only 26 per cent of the pupils who begin foreign-language work in high school ever enter college, the actual percentage of pupils who begin foreign-language work in high school and continue it in college is probably about 5. This small percentage would tend to indicate again the difficulty of justifying purely college-preparatory courses in foreign languages in high school. There is apparent need for offerings which will not only be preparatory for the pupils who are likely to continue in college but will also be rich in functional values for those pupils who are likely to complete their schooling in high school.

If, in an average beginning class of thirty-five pupils, only three

<sup>1</sup> "Of every hundred students who have entered the public secondary school as Freshmen in recent years, over one-fourth have dropped school entirely by the end of the first year, and nearly one-half by the end of the second year. Indeed, only 26 per cent of the high-school Freshmen have ever entered college, and only 8 per cent have ever graduated from an institution of higher learning."—WALTER V. KAULFERS, "Some Recent Trends in the Reorientation of Foreign Language Instruction," *Hispania*, XVIII (February, 1935), 88-89.

<sup>2</sup> E. F. Engel, "Some Observations on the Teaching of Modern Languages in Germany," *Modern Language Journal*, XXII (February, 1938), 329-33.

are likely to continue the language in college, is it reasonable to organize courses only in the interests of these three pupils to the neglect of the other thirty-two? Or would it be better to organize the course primarily in the interests of the majority and make such provisions as may be necessary to accommodate the minority?

*Is there any apparent connection between the number of years the language is followed in the high school and continuance in college?*—If the data for Stanford University are at all typical, it would seem that a pupil who does not continue Latin beyond the first year in high school is not likely to continue the language in college. Those students who have taken Latin for three or four years in high school are more likely to continue the language. This probability is revealed in the fact that 4.8 per cent of the pupils who took Latin for three years in high school continued the language in college, as compared with 7.2 per cent who had taken it four years in high school.<sup>1</sup>

The number of years that Spanish was taken in high school seemingly had little bearing on the continuance of the language beyond the high-school level.

Of the students who took French for four years in high school, the percentage continuing in college was relatively lower than for those who had taken French for two or three years in high school. This situation may have been caused by a decline in interest or by the fact that the language requirements had been fully satisfied in high school.

Those who had taken German for two years in high school had the highest percentage of continuance in college. German students seem to have a more definite aim than the average language student in that, when they begin German, they usually continue into the second year and they are above average in the continuance of the language in college.

*How is the continuance of a language affected by the grade level at which the work was done?*—The students who began a foreign language in the Sophomore high-school year gave the highest percentage of students continuing the language in Stanford University (46.5 per cent). Of those who began in the Junior high-school year, 43.3 per cent continued. These percentages include all four languages.

<sup>1</sup> These percentages are based on the data for 1934-38.

Of the students who began Latin as Freshmen and Sophomores in high school, 3.4 per cent continued the same language in college. Of these, 40 per cent were enrolled in Latin in the Junior year of high school. None of those who began Latin as Juniors or Seniors continued the language in college.

The grade level at which Spanish was begun apparently had little bearing on the continuance of the language beyond the high-school level.

The continuance of French in college was not seriously affected by the level at which the language was studied in high school. This fact may have been the result of a natural interest in French and what it has to offer.

The largest percentage (92.8)<sup>1</sup> of students to continue German in college began as Sophomores in high school, of whom 85 per cent continued the language for two years in high school and 28 per cent for three years. However, of those who began in the other three years, over 50 per cent continued in college.

*How is the continuance of a language affected by the quality of the work done? For example, is the fact that a student receives a mark of "A" or "B" an incentive for him to continue the foreign language at the college level?*—In general the students who had received an "A" in the high-school language were likely to continue the language in college. Of the students who had received an "A" in high school, 30 per cent continued in college. Of the students who had received a "B," 27 per cent continued. Of the "C" group, 18.5 per cent continued. Of those who had received a "D" in high school, 16 per cent continued in college; and of the "F" group, 16.6 per cent continued.

*Do pupils do the same type of work, as indicated by marks, in the first quarter in college foreign languages as in high school?*—In general the Latin students who continued the language in college received the same or lower marks in college. The "A" students, however, tended to receive lower marks.

Approximately three-fourths of the students who received an "A" or a "B" in high school received lower marks in college Spanish. The explanation for this phenomenon may perhaps be found in easier marking systems on the part of high-school teachers of Spanish; in

<sup>1</sup> This percentage is for the year 1934.

possible maladjustments to university methods; or in differences in methods, standards, and marking systems. Spanish was the only language of the four in which the difference between high school and college marks tended to be so large.

Almost three-fourths of the students who had received an "A" in high-school French received lower marks in college, but less than 50 per cent of the students who had received a "B" in high school received lower marks in college.

In all the languages more of the students who had received "A's" and "B's" in high school lowered their marks than was the case among the students who had received "C's" and "D's" in high school.<sup>1</sup>

*What percentage of students taking one or more languages in high school major in the languages in college?*—Very few students majoring in Latin began the language in high school. Of the 1930 group, 0.3 per cent majored in Latin, whereas none of the students in the 1934 group took a major in Latin. Of the students who entered Stanford University in 1934 with previous high-school work in Spanish, 1.1 per cent majored in the language. Four per cent of 1930 entrants majored in Spanish. Of the students who took French in high school and entered college in 1934, 1.7 per cent majored in the language. The figures for 1930 are not essentially different. Of the students who entered college in 1934 with previous high-school work in German, 3.6 per cent became German majors. None of the 1930 group became majors in the language.

*Whether the number of students continuing a foreign language in college is sufficient to justify a purely college-preparatory course in foreign language in high school is questionable.*—Since the average college student obviously does not continue the foreign language that he took in high school, the college-preparatory work in high-school foreign language is college-preparatory for him only in the sense of providing him with a "ticket of admission" to the univer-

<sup>1</sup> Of all the students who had received a mark of "A" in high school and continued in college, 30.3 per cent maintained that mark, and 69.7 per cent lowered their marks. For the "B" group, 11.4 per cent received better marks, 36.1 per cent the same mark, and 52.5 per cent lower marks. For the "C" group, 25 per cent received better marks, 52 per cent the same mark, and 23 per cent lower marks. For the "D" group, 75 per cent received better marks, 25 per cent the same mark, and none lower marks.

sity. In view of these facts it is well to consider the possibility of constructing curriculums in foreign languages primarily for the non-college-preparatory pupil and making necessary adjustments for the small number of students who will continue the language in college.

Obviously there is much that could be gained from a foreign-language course which is not exclusively college-preparatory. There are many possibilities for enrichment by way of cultural information. In the case of Latin, for example, Roman institutions, the contributions of Rome to modern civilization, and the careers of great men would make a valuable contribution in enriching the program for the pupil who is not likely to continue Latin in college. The few pupils who are going to continue (three in a class of thirty-five) would not lose from such a course. Where college requirements run contrary to the needs of the terminal pupils, differentiated assignments given in the regular classroom would easily take care of any extra needs, and all pupils would not need to be subjected to a language course primarily devoted to the future college student.

A college-preparatory course for pupils of whom from 5 to 8 per cent continue the language in college is obviously "preparatory" in name only. For the 92-95 per cent it is probably "preparatory" only in the sense of satisfying unit requirements for admission to college. The fact that only 3 per cent of the students who reach college with high-school Latin to their credit continue the language indicates the need for making the high-school Latin course complete and worth while in itself rather than purely foundational. There is little use in laying a foundation unless there is also a foundation of interest which encourages the learner to build something of significance upon the foundation.

Foreign languages in the high school, from the figures of 1930-34 and 1934-38 at Stanford University, show a definite need for building an interest and a foundation upon which the student can build and for enriching foreign-language courses in high school with materials and activities which will contribute something of greater value for life than a mere "ticket of admission" to the university.

## REACTIONS OF TEACHERS TO THE TEACHING SITUATION—A STUDY OF JOB SATISFACTION

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Few matters in life are more fundamental to a person than his attitude toward his job. This point applies with emphatic relevance to the feeling that the teacher has for teaching. The studies of Bain,<sup>1</sup> Haggerty,<sup>2</sup> Laycock,<sup>3</sup> McClure,<sup>4</sup> Peck,<sup>5</sup> Steinbach,<sup>6</sup> Wickman,<sup>7</sup> and Yourman<sup>8</sup> have dealt with only one phase of the subject, namely, the attitude of teachers toward, and the incidence of, so-called "undesirable behavior" of children in school.

The investigation by Hoppock<sup>9</sup> is probably the only systematic attempt to discover differences in the attitudes of satisfied and dissatisfied teachers. In view of the strange neglect of a topic of such

<sup>1</sup> Winifred E. Bain, "A Study of the Attitudes of Teachers toward Behavior Problems," *Child Development*, V (March, 1934), 19-35.

<sup>2</sup> M. E. Haggerty, "The Incidence of Undesirable Behavior in Public-School Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XII (September, 1925), 102-22.

<sup>3</sup> S. R. Laycock, "Teachers' Reactions to Maladjustments of School Children," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, IV (February, 1934), 11-29.

<sup>4</sup> W. E. McClure, "Characteristics of Problem Children Based on Judgments of Teachers," *Journal of Juvenile Research*, XIII (April, 1929), 124-40.

<sup>5</sup> Leigh Peck, "Teachers' Reports of the Problems of Unadjusted School Children," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVI (February, 1935), 123-38.

<sup>6</sup> Alexander Alan Steinbach, "A Survey of Adjustment Difficulties in Children and Youth Drawn from the Normal Population," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIV (October, 1933), 122-29.

<sup>7</sup> E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928.

<sup>8</sup> Julius Yourman, "Children Identified by Their Teachers as Problems," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, V (February, 1932), 334-43.

<sup>9</sup> Robert Hoppock, *Job Satisfaction*. National Occupational Conference Publications. New York: Harper & Bros., 1935.



obviously great importance, the writers submit herewith a little more evidence on the reaction of teachers to the teaching situation.

What are the elements in the teaching situation which cause satisfaction and dissatisfaction to teachers? What is the extent of this satisfaction and dissatisfaction? What is the relation of these attitudes to length of service? How do the attitudes of men and women differ? These are the questions with which the following investigation is concerned.

#### THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST

The Teaching Situations Test is the product of investigations carried on over a period of several years. The first step in the construction of this instrument consisted in obtaining the responses of a large number of teachers to two simple requests. The teachers were asked to think over their teaching experience and to put down spontaneously and anonymously on a blank sheet of paper (1) those things that had caused them outstanding happiness and satisfaction and (2) those things that had caused them conspicuous unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Thousands of these statements were assembled and classified. After ambiguous expressions and duplications were eliminated, the remaining items were cast into various types of check lists. These check lists with different kinds of directions were administered to other groups of teachers, the data were compiled, and the results were submitted to the criticism of several groups of graduate students who were members of a seminar in educational psychology conducted by one of the authors of this report. The outcome of these successive revisions is the test of 107 items used in the investigation reported in this article. The directions of the test<sup>1</sup> are presented below.

#### TEACHING SITUATIONS

Please do not sign your name

Sex..... Marital Status..... Years of Experience.....  
Training..... Position..... City.....

The following items have been given by a large number of teachers as the things which have caused them a lot of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In order

<sup>1</sup> The reader may obtain a copy of the complete test by writing to H. Y. McClusky, American Youth Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

that you may express your opinion, you are asked to mark the following items according to the way you feel about them.

Draw a ring around the figure that best expresses your feeling of like or dislike according to the following key.

*Key for marking:*

- 3: Very unusual, extreme feeling of satisfaction
- 2: Average feeling of satisfaction
- 1: Slight or little feeling of satisfaction
- 0: No feeling about it—all right either way
- 1: Slight feeling of dissatisfaction
- 2: Average feeling of dissatisfaction
- 3: Very unusual, extreme feeling of dissatisfaction
- ×: Have never experienced—have had nothing to do with it

A few of the items of the test are given here. Each item was followed by the key figures which the teacher was to mark to show liking or disliking.

1. To have the children show the teacher a great deal of respect.
2. To have children who are frank and outspoken.
3. A troublesome child who leaves school.
4. To be able to create enthusiasm and interest in children for their school work.
5. To be able to stimulate a child who has been doing poor work to do better work.

The test yields two scores: a score for each person taking the test and a score for each item of the test. The score for each person is found by computing the algebraic sum of the digits of all the statements marked. A high positive score indicates a high degree of satisfaction with teaching, whereas a high negative score indicates a great amount of dissatisfaction with teaching. A score approaching zero should indicate either a balancing of the satisfying and the dissatisfying experiences or an attitude toward teaching devoid of much feeling in either the positive or the negative direction. The highest possible plus or minus score is 321.

The score for each item of the test when it is taken by a group of persons is found by computing the algebraic sum of all the digits marked for that item divided by the number of tests minus the number of × marks, since × indicates no experience with an item. The extent to which a score approaches +3 indicates the degree to which satisfaction is attached to the situation described by the item, and the extent to which a score approaches -3 shows the degree

to which dissatisfaction is attached to the situation designated by the item. A score approaching zero signifies either a balancing of the positive and the negative reactions or a general indifference on the part of teachers toward that phase of school work.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST

The Teaching Situations Test, a page of instructions, and a stamped envelope with a return address were given to 171 teachers in fifteen public schools of three counties in southeastern Michigan. The materials were handed to the teachers by their respective superintendents, but they were requested specifically not to sign their names to the blanks. The completed tests were mailed directly to the investigator, who as a neutral observer resided in none of the communities in which the teachers lived and had no professional relations with any of the persons taking the test. The number of tests returned was 131, or 76.6 per cent of the number sent out. The precautions thus taken to protect the confidence of the teachers account, in part, for the high percentage of returns and the conscientiousness exhibited in replying to the various items on the test.

The sheet of instructions which accompanied the test was as follows:

These mimeographed pages contain a list of situations which most teachers have experienced in some form or other in the course of their school work. This compilation constitutes a method to determine the types of experiences which commonly *please* or commonly *annoy* teachers. This list is being submitted to a large number of teachers with the expectation that a great number of honest responses would provide a body of important information which could be used to increase the happiness and effectiveness of the teacher in her work. To use an example from another field: If the head of a department store knew in detail the kinds of experiences and occurrences which commonly annoy and delight the members of his staff, he would be in a much better position to arrange their conditions of work so as to improve the morale and general efficiency of the store.

It is probably not too much to expect similar results from similar knowledge in the field of education. Specific information about the details of school experiences which irritate or delight the teacher should be very valuable, not only for the teacher in understanding the nature of her own task, but also for the principal, superintendent, and members of the board of education in improving the conditions under which teachers work. It is therefore hoped that this brief explanation will aid you in understanding the purpose of this list of "Teaching

Situations" and that, by understanding its purpose, you will realize the great value of giving to the various statements an honest response out of your own experiences. In this way you will add your bit to an investigation which may, it is hoped, provide some basis for increasing the happiness and well-being of the teacher and for improving the conditions under which teachers teach.

Simply follow directions on the accompanying blanks and after completion, mail them in the accompanying stamped envelope to the address below. *Do not sign your name* to either blank.

TABLE 1  
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES OF 131 TEACHERS ON  
THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST

Score	Number of Women	Number of Men	All Teachers
70 to 79.....	1	.....	1
60 to 69.....	2	.....	3
50 to 59.....	4	1	5
40 to 49.....	1	3	4
30 to 39.....	2	.....	3
20 to 29.....	6	6	12
10 to 19.....	10	4	15
0 to 9.....	11	5	16
-10 to -1.....	15*	12*	27*
-20 to -11.....	16	6	22
-30 to -21.....	6	3	9
-40 to -31.....	1	2	5
-50 to -41.....	2	2	4
-60 to -51.....	2	3	5
Total†.....	79	47	131
Mean‡.....	2.4	- 2.6	0.9
Standard deviation.....	26.5	26.3	27.2

\* Interval containing median score.

† A total of 131 teachers responded to the questionnaire. However, since five of this number did not indicate their sex, they could be included only under the heading "All Teachers."

‡ The means given here were computed from the ungrouped data.

## RESULTS

*Reactions of all teachers.*—A distribution of the scores of the 131 teachers is given in Table 1. It is important to note that the mean score for the entire group is virtually zero (0.9). This score should not be interpreted to mean that these teachers go about their tasks in a colorless, unfeeling manner or that they are indifferent and numb to the swarming multitude of events in which they are con-

stantly immersed. On the contrary, the original data indicate a wide range of positive and negative reactions. The average score of 0.9 signifies that the satisfactions and the dissatisfactions are about equal in number when the aggregate experience of the entire group of 131 teachers is viewed as a whole. In other words, the composite experience of the teachers is neither hilariously happy nor depressingly unhappy. It is mixed with about the same measure of pleasure and of irritation.

The range of the distribution, however, suggests that some of the teachers were definitely more happy and some definitely more unhappy than others. This fact implies that teachers occupying a position of greater deviation in the distribution should receive more investigation than was given them in this study.

Table 2 contains the scores on the 25 items of the Teaching Situations Test ranked highest by the group of 131 teachers and the corresponding scores for each item assigned by 47 men and 79 women who were members of the group. These are the situations which caused the greatest amount of satisfaction to the group as a whole. The statements given the first five ranks by all the teachers indicate that many of the satisfactions of teachers are concerned with the successful learning and adjustment of the pupil. Good living quarters, security of position, a desirable social life (Items 44, 45, 43, 39, and 42) seem to be sources of happiness among teachers. The pay check (Item 30) also adds cheer to school work.

The twenty-five statements receiving the greatest dissatisfaction scores are presented in Table 3. The four items causing the greatest dissatisfaction for all teachers refer to pupils who misbehave by being untruthful, by disturbing the class, by writing obscene notes, and by displaying bad tempers. In fact, ten of the twenty-five items in the negative list relate to disciplinary and behavior problems. In this respect the results of this investigation agree closely with the data of Wickman's well-known study.

In spite of the slight trend for the data to show some concentration on problems dealing with pupil-teacher relationships, the results of Tables 2 and 3 indicate, in general, that the sources of a teacher's satisfactions and dissatisfactions relate to the totality of his experience in and out of the classroom. Adjustments relating to the com-

TABLE 2

SCORES ON THE TWENTY-FIVE ITEMS OF THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST RANKED HIGHEST BY A GROUP OF 131 TEACHERS\* AND THE CORRESPONDING SCORES ASSIGNED BY 47 MEN AND 79 WOMEN WHO WERE MEMBERS OF THE GROUP

ITEM	MEAN SCORE			DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SCORES OF WOMEN AND MEN
	All Teachers	Men	Women	
5. To be able to stimulate a child who has been doing poor work to do better work . .	2.79	2.77	2.78	0.01
11. To have existing between the teacher and her pupils a feeling that she is a helper, a friend to go to rather than a superior being . . . . .	2.69	2.57	2.76	.19
9. To see pupils make progress . . . . .	2.67	2.57	2.73	.16
4. To be able to create enthusiasm and interest in children for their school work . .	2.66	2.49	2.85	.36
8. To be able to help the problem child adjust to the room both socially and academically . . . . .	2.63	2.43	2.74	.31
44. To be able to find a desirable place to live while teaching . . . . .	2.63	2.49	2.67	.18
7. To guide the pupil so that he wills to do the right things . . . . .	2.58	2.43	2.66	.23
18. To have pupils' physical defects corrected . . . . .	2.55	2.34	2.67	.33
24. To be able to improve instruction as a result of travel . . . . .	2.54	2.48	2.60	.12
33. To be able to teach subjects you are trained in . . . . .	2.54	2.40	2.61	.21
13. Having children courteous to room visitors . . . . .	2.52	2.40	2.61	.21
19. To be able to give a child the instruction his particular case requires . . . . .	2.50	2.40	2.53	.13
27. To have the essential equipment necessary for teaching . . . . .	2.48	2.30	2.58	.28
6. To have an appreciation for the child's viewpoint . . . . .	2.47	2.21	2.62	.41
25. To have children suggest activities they would like to work out in school . . . . .	2.39	2.24	2.37	.13
45. To be free from school politics . . . . .	2.37	2.30	2.49	.19
43. To know definitely at least a year in advance what your position will be . . . . .	2.36	2.39	2.39	.....
30. To receive pay checks . . . . .	2.34	2.26	2.41	.15
39. To associate with teachers having good physical and mental health . . . . .	2.34	2.13	2.44	.31
42. To find desirable associates in the community . . . . .	2.32	2.23	2.35	.12
17. To know of progress of former pupils . .	2.26	2.02	2.40	.38
38. To do work which the supervisor approves . . . . .	2.25	1.77	2.43	.66
10. To have pupils enjoy coming to school because it is fun . . . . .	2.24	2.09	2.38	.29
16. To have a high percentage of attendance .	2.20	1.89	2.41	.52
1. To have the children show the teacher a great deal of respect . . . . .	2.12	2.09	2.20	0.11

\* A total of 131 teachers responded to the questionnaire. However, since five of this number did not indicate their sex, they could be included only under the heading "All Teachers."

TABLE 3

SCORES ON THE TWENTY-FIVE ITEMS OF THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST RANKED LOWEST BY A GROUP OF 131 TEACHERS\* AND THE CORRESPONDING SCORES ASSIGNED BY 47 MEN AND 79 WOMEN WHO WERE MEMBERS OF THE GROUP

ITEM	MEAN SCORE			DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SCORES OF WOMEN AND MEN†
	All Teachers	Men	Women	
56. To have children who are untruthful.....	-2.51	-2.35	-2.66	0.31
57. To have one child who keeps the class disrupted and entertained...	-2.50	-2.31	-2.61	.30
64. To have obscene notes written by children to each other.....	-2.42	-2.18	-2.60	.42
63. To have a child who has temper tantrums.....	-2.37	-2.05	-2.28	.23
107. To be compelled to teach for an insufficient salary.....	-2.31	-2.31	-2.12	— .19
90. Failure of teacher co-operation causing lack of harmony in the teaching staff.....	-2.24	-2.17	-2.33	.16
93. To have supervisors show partiality.....	-2.21	-2.04	-2.33	.29
101. To have pupils with disregard for school property.....	-2.20	-2.17	-2.16	— .01
87. To have an accumulation of ungraded papers.....	-2.17	-1.74	-2.41	.67
47. Working with children who are physically unclean.....	-2.13	-2.07	-2.16	.09
102. Having to spend so much time on extra-curriculum activities that actual teaching is neglected.....	-2.11	-1.88	-2.28	.40
77. Not having time to do a thorough piece of work.....	-2.09	-1.87	-2.35	.48
53. Children with ability making little progress.....	-2.07	-1.81	-2.09	.28
58. To be able to locate a child who stole a sum of money.....	-2.07	-1.72	-2.31	.59
65. To have a child who swears....	-2.06	-1.85	-2.08	.23
67. Having children who disobey you	-2.07	-1.72	-2.28	.50
61. To have a stubborn pupil.....	-2.05	-1.83	-2.20	.37
96. To have mothers interfere with the work of the school.....	-2.04	-1.98	-2.06	.08
83. A poorly equipped classroom...	-2.03	-1.94	-2.17	.23
62. To have pupils ask questions about their assignment after it has been clearly made.....	-1.99	-1.64	-2.18	.54
48. Children who are indifferent toward their school work.....	-1.98	-1.93	-2.06	.13
94. To have to deal with narrow-minded parents.....	-1.97	-1.69	-2.15	0.46

\* A total of 131 teachers responded to the questionnaire. However, since five of the number did not indicate their sex, they could be included only under the heading "All Teachers."

† Differences preceded by a minus sign indicate that the men teachers showed greater dissatisfaction with the items concerned than did the women.



TABLE 3—Continued

ITEM	MEAN SCORE			DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SCORES OF WOMEN AND MEN†
	All Teachers	Men	Women	
68. Having several subnormal children in your class.....	-1.96	-1.37	-2.12	0.75
98. A principal who is dominating and authoritative.....	-1.95	-1.82	-2.09	.27
104. Unfavorable comments in the community concerning the teachers.....	-1.94	-1.85	-1.73	-0.12

munity, living conditions, parental attitudes, financial security, social life, and administrative relationships are just as vivid as adjustments relating to the specific conduct of the classroom. In other words, the satisfaction of the teacher in his job is a product of his total life while engaged in teaching. If, therefore, the highest morale is to be achieved in a school staff, all the relationships of the instructor must be considered. There is no evidence that the experiences centering in the classroom can be segmented from life outside the classroom.

*A comparison of the reactions of men and women teachers.*—Tables 2 and 3 enable the reader to compare the reactions of men and women teachers to the highest and lowest ranking items of the questionnaire.

An inspection of Table 2 reveals that in the case of every item but one (43), women are *more satisfied* than are men, while a similar analysis of Table 3 indicates that in the case of every item but three (107, 101, and 104) women are also *more dissatisfied* than men are. The data, therefore, appear to support the interpretation that, with some variation in specific instances, the men and the women teachers in this investigation tend to be satisfied and dissatisfied with the same situations but that the women are more extreme than are the men in their reactions to situations regardless of the direction of the reactions. In other words, when women teachers are pleased, they are more pleased, and when they are displeased, they are more displeased than men.

One hesitates to generalize too freely on the tendency mentioned in the preceding sentence, but it raises a neglected point which deserves more attention. For example, the portion of this study dealing with dissatisfactions corresponds somewhat to the investigation conducted by Wickman,<sup>1</sup> who studied the attitude of teachers in the first eight grades toward what they considered to be the "undesirable" behavior of school children. The majority of teachers in the elementary-school grades are women. In his data Wickman did not indicate the difference between the ratings of men and women. It is probably a safe assumption, therefore, that his study deals primarily with the attitudes of *women teachers* toward the undesirable behavior of children in the first eight grades. Would data from an equal number of men give comparable results? Forty-seven men and seventy-nine women in this investigation tend to agree on what the dissatisfying experiences are, but they do not agree on the extent of dissatisfaction. The writers believe that this difference is large enough to warrant giving more attention to the discrepancies between the sexes in their attitudes toward home, school, and social adjustment.

*Reactions of married and single teachers.*—Of the 131 teachers responding to the questionnaire, 113 indicated marital status. Seventy-three were single, and forty were married. The mean score for the single teachers was 1.72, and that for the married teachers was 0.85. Both scores are close to the mean of the entire group (0.9).

*Years of teaching experience and reactions to test.*—Of the 131 teachers returning the questionnaire, 119 indicated teaching experience ranging in length from one to thirty-five years, with an average of 11.65 years. The correlation by the product-moment method between the years of teaching and the score on the test yielded a coefficient of 0.07, with a probable error of 0.059. However, an inspection of the distribution of the years of teaching experience in comparison with the mean score on the test, as given in Table 4, qualifies the conclusion suggested by such a low correlation.

The mean score of 8.7 for teachers with one to three years of experience shows some satisfaction with teaching. Teachers having

<sup>1</sup> E. K. Wickman, *op. cit.*

from four to twelve years of experience show a tendency toward some dissatisfaction, while teachers with more than twenty-five years of experience show a greater degree of satisfaction. These differences are probably not large enough and are not based on a sufficient number of cases to give a great amount of significance to the trend indicated in Table 4, but they suggest a hypothesis for further investigation which may give some explanation for the relation between number of years of teaching and satisfaction with the work.

TABLE 4  
COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACH-  
ING EXPERIENCE AND MEAN SCORES ON  
THE TEACHING SITUATIONS TEST

Years of Experience	Number of Teachers	Mean Score on Test
1-3.....	27	8.7
4-6.....	19	- 9.3
7-9.....	17	- 7.6
10-12*.....	20	- 3.0
13-15.....	10	5.3
16-18.....	9	- 6.3
19-21.....	7	5.7
22-24.....	2	- 8.7
25-27.....	3	9.3
28-30.....	4	7.2
35.....	2	25.5

\* Interval of mean number of years of experience.

The hypothesis suggested may be stated as follows: The very new teacher is challenged by the new position, and the old teacher is settled in his work and has accepted his status. Both groups are more satisfied than unhappy. On the other hand, the teacher of four or more years of experience has passed the stage of novelty and has not thoroughly made up his mind to accept teaching as a permanent life-work. He tends, therefore, to be somewhat dissatisfied. In any case this hypothesis probably emphasizes an important point, namely, that job satisfaction in teaching, as in any other occupation, is partly a function of the stage that the teacher occupies in the course of his occupational development.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This article presents the report of an investigation of teachers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction with teaching. The data were secured anonymously from 131 elementary-school and high-school instructors from schools in fifteen towns of southeastern Michigan.

The principal instrument of the study was a questionnaire composed of 107 statements listing some common experiences of teaching. These statements were culled from several thousand expressions obtained from over three hundred teachers.

The average score on the questionnaire was about midway between extreme satisfaction and extreme dissatisfaction. This datum is interpreted to mean that on the whole the happy and the unhappy moments are about evenly divided for these 131 teachers. The twenty-five most satisfying and the twenty-five most dissatisfying experiences suggest that, while in general the teacher-pupil relation is the most conspicuous source of feeling in the teacher's life, yet practically every phase of the teacher's life, ranging from his relation to the community to his attitude toward the equipment in the classroom, is involved in his adjustment. This wide range of experiences suggests that the significant cue to the satisfaction of the teacher is found in the total life-situation in which the teacher works. Men and women teachers tend to agree on their greatest satisfactions and dissatisfactions, but the women teachers of this investigation are more extreme than are the men in their reactions regardless of the direction of the reaction.

There is no significant difference in the satisfaction-dissatisfaction scores made by married and single teachers. There is some evidence that teachers with less than four, or more than twenty-five, years of experience are somewhat more happy with their work than are teachers with between four and twelve years of teaching experience.

The general outcome of this study suggests that the problem of job satisfaction in teaching is one which deserves far greater attention than it has heretofore received at the hands of students of education.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER  
Stanford University

SAMUEL T. ADAMS  
Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona

\*

WRITERS on secondary education continue to recognize the different types of secondary-school units and their relationships. The youth problem is stressed as an important one, although there has not yet been presented any far-reaching proposal for the reorganization of secondary education to meet the personal and social needs revealed by the surveys.

### JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

453. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "Frontiers in Junior High School Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 112-19.  
Urges organization of the junior high school program on the basis of the personal and social needs of all youth and recommends specific changes.
454. NORLIN, MERRILL F. "Accenting the 'Junior' in Junior High School," *School Executive*, LIX (May, 1940), 10-12.  
Criticizes over-departmentalization in the junior high school; suggests re-evaluation of departmentalization at this level and reports experiences of the Junior High School at Lexington, Massachusetts.
455. TUTTLE, HAROLD S. "Has the Junior High School Kept Its Promise?" *Clearing House*, XIV (January, 1940), 263-66.  
A review of the aims set forth for the junior high school and the obstacles faced in achieving these aims. Suggests the necessity for a more complete check of aims against achievements.

### JUNIOR COLLEGE

456. BASS, W. W. "Nonacademic Courses and Curricula," *Junior College Journal*, X (April, 1940), 429-33.  
Reports the experience of Chanute Junior College, Chanute Kansas, in developing curriculums to meet the needs of terminal students and presents recommendations based on an extensive study of such developments in other junior colleges.

457. BOGUE, JESSE P. "The Junior College in American Education," *Junior College Journal*, X (October, 1939), 65-69.  
A review of the junior-college movement, with emphasis on the necessity in contemporary society of education beyond high school.
458. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Junior College Terminal Education," *Junior College Journal*, X (January, 1940), 244-50.  
Tells of the reasons for, and sets forth detailed plans of, the study of terminal education by the American Association of Junior Colleges.
459. FARISS, GERTRUDE HOUK. "Shall the Junior College Have Its Own Plant?" *Junior College Journal*, X (April, 1940), 434-36.  
Presents the point of view that the junior college needs its own plant if it is to maintain adequate standards and to avoid limitation by the high-school plant and equipment.
460. KOOS, LEONARD V. "The Effect of the Upward Extension of the High School on the Organization for Higher Education," *The Outlook for Higher Education*, pp. 12-28. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1939, Vol. XI. Compiled and edited by John Dale Russell. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.  
Discusses background and growth of junior colleges and the trend and prospects for integration of junior college with high school, together with implications for reorganization of universities as senior colleges.
461. SANFORD, DANIEL S. "Co-operative Arrangements in Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, X (January, 1940), 251-56.  
Reports the first part of an investigation devoted to co-operative utilization of community resources by the junior college. Recommends inter-institutional co-operation and co-ordination to improve junior-college programs.

ARTICULATION<sup>1</sup>

462. BAIR, FREDERICK H. "The Articulation of the Elementary with the High School," *English Journal*, XXIX (April, 1940), 275-81.  
In terms of a 6-3-3 program, the author emphasizes the need for satisfactory individual progress reports as an aid to articulation of the work of the different grades and levels.
463. HOLLINGWORTH, LETA S. "Problems of Relationship between Elementary and Secondary Schools in the Case of Highly Intelligent Pupils," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XIII (October, 1939), 90-102.  
Proposes enrichment of the curriculum for high-school pupils of exceptionally high intelligence quotients, with recommendations for specific kinds of study for these pupils.

<sup>1</sup> See also Items 421 (Prescott and Garretson) and 428 (Hale and Others) in the September, 1940, number of the *School Review*.

464. MILLER, WILLIAM T. "8-4, 6-3-3, or 6-5—Which?" *Journal of Education* (Boston), CXXII (December, 1939), 308-10.

A summary of the pros and cons of each of the three plans, with emphasis on the importance of classroom teaching in any plan and with the conclusion that good teaching is more important than organization schemes.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

465. MORGAN, DEWITT S. "Issues concerning Vocational Education in the Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (July, 1940), 25-30.

Discusses what the author considers the chief issues: "Is vocational education an appropriate function of the secondary school?" "What form shall occupational education take in the secondary school?" "Can we afford a program of education for useful occupations?"

466. RASCHE, WILLIAM F. "The Industrial-Arts Curriculum in a New Social Order," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXIX (April, 1940), 135-39.

An analysis of methods by which industrial arts and vocational education can be correlated with other branches of the curriculum to prepare pupils for their life-work.

467. WILLIAMS, AUBREY W. *Work, Wages, and Education*. The Inglis Lecture, 1940. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. 58.

Emphasizes the necessity for a revision of educational practices in the light of current and likely future economic conditions, which may necessitate the education of young people through twenty or twenty-five years.

#### YOUTH PROBLEM AND PROGRAM<sup>1</sup>

468. JACOBSON, PAUL B. (compiler and editor). *Youth and Work Opportunities*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 90. Chicago: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1940.

The entire issue is a manual containing descriptions of a number of selected school-aid projects and a few resident centers sponsored by the National Youth Administration. Emphasizes relation between the youth problem and secondary education.

469. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "Unifying the Secondary Curriculum around the Problems of Youth," *Secondary Education*, VIII (September, 1939), 196-201.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 500 (Eckert and Marshall) in the September, 1939, number, and Item 440 (Judd) in the September, 1940, number of the *School Review*.



A review of the inadequacies of traditional secondary-school practices in the light of various youth studies. Presents a program of reorganization breaking with the academic tradition and enlarging the current concept of secondary education.

470. OSBORN, L. G. "What Shall We Do with the N.Y.A. in the High School?" *School Review*, XLVII (November, 1939), 655-62.  
Emphasizes the responsibility of administrators and teachers involved in the handling of grants from the National Youth Administration. Surveys various phases of administering the grants within the school.
471. *A Program of Action for American Youth*. Washington: American Youth Commission, 1939. Pp. 20.  
Presents recommendations of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education.
472. REEVES, FLOYD W. "After the Youth Surveys—What?" *Occupations*, XVIII (January, 1940), 243-48.  
The director of the American Youth Commission urges that schools and employment offices co-operate in preparation of local plans for adequate occupational adjustment services.

#### ADULT EDUCATION

473. CARTWRIGHT, MORSE A. "Issues in Adult Education," *Journal of Adult Education*, XII (June, 1940), 259-68.  
First part of the annual report of the director of the American Association for Adult Education, presenting issues of importance in the adult-education movement, with particular attention to policy and control.
474. COE, BEATRICE H., and HABBE, STEPHEN. "The Adult Guidance Service of New Haven: An Evaluation Study," *Occupations*, XVIII (February, 1940), 339-42.  
Describes the work of the New Haven Adult Guidance Service, co-operatively conducted by the New Haven Board of Education and the Connecticut State Department of Education.
475. FIELDS, HAROLD. "Making Education of Adults, Adult," *Journal of Adult Education*, XII (January, 1940), 40-45.  
Calls for a change in content and teaching methods in adult-education classes to make them more meaningful to students and more definitely related to life-problems. Reviews changes in adult education in New York City.
476. HALLENBECK, WILBUR C. "The Place of Adult Education in Public Schools," *Teachers College Record*, XLI (October, 1939), 13-24.  
Considers the theoretical basis for adult-education programs in public schools, the implications for practice, and the problems each community faces in deciding on adult-education policy.

477. HARSHBARGER, H. P. "A Program of Adult Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXIX (March, 1940), 95-98.  
Presents plans for establishing a program of adult education based on the experience of Maine Township High School, Des Plaines and Park Ridge, Illinois.
478. LEE, EDWIN A. "The Vocational Training of Adults," *Teachers College Record*, XLI (October, 1939), 34-42.  
Points out that most vocational education at present is adult in character and that increasing demand for adult vocational education may exceed educators' ability to deal with problems which will arise.
479. THOMAS, FRANK W. "Can Adult Education Meet Our Present Needs?" *Journal of Adult Education*, XI (October, 1939), 381-86.  
Points out errors in current practices and stresses need of co-operation of professional educators with specialists in other fields and with community leaders in improvement of adult-education programs.

# Educational Writings

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## REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A CLOSER RELATION BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE IN EDUCATION.—In the small volume representing the twelfth in the Lecture Series of Kappa Delta Pi,<sup>1</sup> Briggs has given to educators another interpretation of the educational needs of the day in terms of a specific philosophical point of view. In the light of the present dominating educational philosophy, it is appropriate that this point of view should be pragmatic.

In harmony with the teachings of William James, "pragmatism" is defined as that basis or criterion of judgment which involves practical consequences—the difference which an idea or action ultimately makes. Too often critics of this philosophy have found fault with what, in their opinion, was its overstressing of the concrete and the immediate. The author has forestalled this criticism by his use of the word "ultimately" and by his clear indication that consequences go far beyond the immediate to the remote effects on society as a whole. Even though practical consequences are the criteria of effectiveness in educational procedures, a "philosophy," defined as an organized and consistent body of principles, is found necessary to the theory and the practice of education, or pedagogy. (Briggs uses the now somewhat outworn term "pedagogy" to refer to the theory and practice of education where most modern writers use simply "education." The reviewer favors the latter term.) It may be pointed out, however, that such a body of principles represents a realistic rather than a pragmatic point of view. Dewey states that consistency in philosophy refers not to a quantitative summation of tenable generalizations (a characteristic of science rather than philosophy) but rather to a mode of response (John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 379. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916).

Briggs further points out in the essay that a second basic groundwork of pedagogy (or education) is sociology. On the whole, one would agree with the contention, but the distinction between sociology as a study of the abstract concepts and processes of social evolution and functioning and the more concrete content of social problems as basic to curricular experience might have been made clearer. That the philosophy of the educator should be made more explicit and critical is rightly considered as a great need of the day. Emphasis is also rightly placed on philosophy defined as a mode of procedure, a problem-solving technique, rather than as a memorized body of materials.

<sup>1</sup> Thomas H. Briggs, *Pragmatism and Pedagogy*. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xii+124. \$1.25.

After the author has laid his bases in the discussions of the more abstract aspects of education, philosophy, and sociology, he gives the remainder of his attention to research and utilization of the results of research as the supreme expression of the pragmatic point of view. He points out that a vast quantity of research materials, procured at the cost of enormous expenditure of time and money, now exists, but there is no evidence that more than an infinitesimal portion of it has ever affected practice in any way. As illustrations of this situation, reference is made to two bulletins (*Issues of Secondary Education* and *Functions of Secondary Education*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, Numbers 59 and 64) which were compiled at great expense by the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education. Even after the employment of publicizing techniques, use of the results was disappointingly small. As one cause of the failure to utilize research, the fact is cited that too often research is undertaken merely to satisfy a conventional requirement, for example, to get a degree, rather than to solve a real problem or to meet a real need. A second weakness noted is the use of abstract words the meanings of which are so poorly defined that the words do not succeed in conveying thought. An elaborate study is described to show how the concept of culture may be defined exactly through refined research techniques.

On the whole, the book, although obviously not intended for the more advanced students of education, wisely points out aspects of the field which greatly need improvement. The gulf between research and practice must be bridged; significant changes in human beings must be assured; a workable philosophy must be developed. But a person may fall into the very pit he is pointing out. The acceptance of the label of "pragmatism" may unwittingly conceal a reliance on abstract concepts and principles without a realization that these are but categories, classifications, or descriptive terms which must themselves be made dynamic by relation to realities of quite a different order. Culture, with all its elaborate definition, integration, and systematization of knowledge, never moved anyone to do anything. In the opinion of the reviewer, herein lies the weakness of the bulletins referred to above, as well as that of various other recently published statements of objectives and issues in education. Education must be built around things that people in groups want, will go after, and will pay a price to obtain. A truly pragmatic education must begin in the concrete manifestations of human activity as revealed in a social and psychological anthropology, and, until it does, its publications will continue to gather dust on library shelves.

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UNEMPLOYMENT OF YOUTH AS A CHALLENGE TO EDUCATION.—When the friends and colleagues of Alexander Inglis established in 1925 the Inglis Lecture-ship in Secondary Education, it is doubtful whether the wisest of them could

have predicted the problem which would command the attention of the lecturer in 1940. In the brief period of fifteen years the problem of the unemployment of youth has come from nowhere and has developed so rapidly that almost four million youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four are now out of school, looking for work, and unable to find jobs of any kind. Moreover, as a result of the shift from a handicraft economy to large-scale mechanical production, the millions of boys and girls who are enrolled in secondary schools are now denied the educative values of many types of work experiences which were generally part of an adolescent's home environment a few decades ago. Not only do these present conditions demand the attention of the best minds in the economic and political spheres of American life, they demand as well the attention of every educator who has a modern conception of the secondary school as a democratic institution responsible for the education of youth in the community supporting it. Consequently the 1940 Inglis Lecture<sup>1</sup> deals with a problem which is vital as well as timely to secondary schools everywhere.

The following quotations will give the reader some ideas of the point of view and of the realism of Mr. Williams' lecture.

... the normal channels of growing up are closed to [young people] [p. 2].

... there is a growing realization on the part of educators that these two worlds, the world of the schoolroom and the world of the workshop, are no longer separated by an unbridgeable gulf [p. 5].

This attitude [that higher education is the prerogative of the gentleman] ... has been disastrous at the secondary-school level where a high-school graduate tends now to look upon the white-collar occupations alone as worthy of his training and personal worth [p. 13].

... is this idea that there is a time of life to be devoted entirely to self-improvement in the form of education and a time of life for productive work a sound and necessary one? [P. 24.]

Today, if the home no longer provides the opportunity to teach these arts [how to wield a hammer, a skillet, etc.], it is time to revise our thinking and work out a way for them to be learned and practiced elsewhere [p. 28].

If we are going to continue the process of educating young people through twenty or twenty-five years, I think it is essential that we find a way to extend to them the opportunity to work during the period of their schooling [p. 30].

The fact that in virtually every high school ... the federal government has put into the hands of the principal ... a certain number of paid, part-time jobs has a revolutionary significance in the educational world with which most of the theoretical pedagogues have not yet fully caught up [pp. 41-42].

... there is nothing that stimulates intellectual effort more than the achievement of tangible, constructive results. Work that shows outcomes and intensive thinking can go on at the same time and supplement each other [p. 53].

Some adolescents will come to the end of all-day schooling, but it is to be hoped that their guidance by the school will continue and that part-time courses will be provided which will illuminate and supplement their labor [p. 55].

<sup>1</sup> Aubrey W. Williams, *Work, Wages, and Education*. The Inglis Lecture, 1940. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. 58. \$1.00.

The very nature of Mr. Williams' position as administrator of the National Youth Administration makes it possible for him to know the problems and needs of boys and girls who drop out of, or who have been graduated by, secondary schools and also to know how well the schools have prepared them to face the exigencies of the world in which they find themselves. School people are too often only casually concerned about what happens to the product of their schools. How they can expect to develop appropriate educational programs without constant study of the competences of leaving pupils in relation to out-of-school demands on them must be a mystery to Mr. Williams, as it is to all of us who see the problem as a crucial one in our society.

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SCIENTIFIC OCCUPATIONAL SELECTION.—The educational profession and the general public have been much aware during recent years of the agitation for more effective occupational selection and placement. Technical developments and ever increasing specialization have forced a realization of the need very vividly upon the minds of those persons in quest of employment. Efforts directed toward a fulfilment of the need for occupational selection and placement have been somewhat unproductive, largely because of inadequate knowledge concerning the best methods of procedure. A publication<sup>1</sup> issuing from the experience of the United States Employment Service now presents a picture of some of the means through which a scientific approach to such a goal may be made.

The book consists of eleven chapters and eight appropriate appendixes for reference in interpreting the descriptive content. The subject matter is typical rather than comprehensive in that it presents a method which might be applied, with modifications, to almost any situation involving occupational selection. The graphs, charts, and tables are extremely well prepared and are generously supplied throughout the entire volume. Looked upon as a whole, the book appears as a rather unified, running account of the experience of the Employment Service in setting up techniques for the analysis of occupations and the analysis of individuals, with the ultimate end of matching the appropriate elements of each with the other.

The entire procedure is based on the assumption that one of the major factors in unemployment or slow-moving employment is lack of information concerning the job or the worker. Recognition is freely given to the well-nigh insurmountable task often facing the counselor because of his lack of adequate

<sup>1</sup> William H. Stead, Carroll L. Shartle, and Others, *Occupational Counseling Techniques: Their Development and Application*. Published for the Technical Board of the Occupational Research Program. New York: American Book Co., 1940. Pp. x+274. \$2.50.

information and the lack of reliable means of obtaining it. This book does not attempt to supply counselors with information about occupations or to give sources where such information can be secured; rather it indicates lines of approach.

In seeking to bring about more scientific procedures in counseling, the authors have produced a book which will serve not as a busy worker's handbook but rather as a fundamental guidebook. It may be described more perfectly as a book presenting a technique for developing techniques of counseling. It constitutes a good foundation of information and reference and should be extremely helpful as a guide for training counselors or for setting up a program.

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ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN A DEMOCRACY.—One of the characteristics of a democracy is consideration for the rights of others. The avoidance of personal injury, however desirable as an individual goal, is but one part of a larger objective which includes the prevention of accidents to others as well. The school, as a social agency interested in preparing children for effective citizenship in a democracy, is concerned, among other things, with the attainment of this major objective of individual and public safety. Educational authorities have recently prepared a statement<sup>1</sup> of "the school's responsibility, the underlying philosophy of its participation, the general objectives, the selection and organization of content, and the administration and supervision of its program" (p. 44) of safety education. In the literature of the subject this yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators is outstanding.

There are 361 pages of text, well documented with bibliographical footnotes, and 12 pages of selected references. Listings of sources of safety aids and reviews of safety films, together with descriptions of accident reports, make up the 31-page Appendix. The annual report of the executive secretary, a list of members, and an index are included in the last 136 pages. The text deals with the relation of the safety problem to education, with accident statistics, and with school organization to meet the problem. Educational programs are described in detail for various levels: elementary school, secondary school, rural school, and adult. Other chapters give consideration to preparation of teachers, safety of school environment and of the pupils in that environment, and co-ordination of the school program with those of other community agencies interested in safety. A summary of fifteen principles for safety education is modestly titled "A Point of View on Safety Education" (pp. 356-61).

<sup>1</sup> *Safety Education*. Eighteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1940. Pp. 544. \$2.00.



The deficiencies of this volume will have to be discovered by someone more perspicacious than the reviewer. Its strength and value lie in its self-imposed limitations, stated in the Foreword as follows:

The present volume is not concerned with all phases of safety education. Almost exclusive emphasis has been placed upon procedures and activities carried out in the school or under the immediate direction of educators. . . . In no sense is the present yearbook a national curriculum in safety education [pp. 5-6].

It must be noted, however, that many courses of instruction in safety are so well described that educators who wish to use them will be able to do so by making alterations to suit local conditions. This yearbook should be widely useful, both as a textbook and as a reference book, to administrators, teachers, and students interested in safety education in the school. It is recommended to them without qualification.

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IMPROVED LEARNING MATERIALS IN MATHEMATICS.—One of the improvements in the field of mathematics involves the preparation of the contents of a good textbook which the pupil can read with ease and understanding. Such improvement has been attempted in *Elementary Algebra*.<sup>1</sup>

The language throughout is simple, concise, direct, and written for the pupil. Each paragraph develops but one central thought and is written with the idea that, if the meaning is clear, the pupil is free to concentrate his attention on the mathematical idea under consideration. *Elementary Algebra*, in a natural and simple development, leads the pupil from arithmetic ideas, principles, and processes to corresponding algebraic ideas, principles, and processes.

The subject matter is the usual ninth-grade organization: algebraic numbers and expressions, formulas, equations, and graphs; fundamental operations with algebraic expressions; factoring; equations in one unknown, two unknowns, and quadratics; variation; irrational numbers; and a unit on geometrical construction and geometrical proof—all illustrated with selected problems as examples of the concept to be developed.

The problems and exercises are arranged in three groups in an attempt to meet individual differences. Fundamental materials are in Group A, additional materials in Group B, advanced materials for superior students in Group C. The authors' treatment of problem-solving seems a bit inadequate in this day of emphasis on problem-solving, the discussion being limited to the specific algebraic problems of the textbook rather than enabling the pupil and the inexperienced teacher to understand that "problem-solving," as the term is used today, applies to all fields and that the problems of *Elementary Algebra* offer illustrations of all levels of difficulty, many of which may have direct applications after the techniques of problem-solving have been developed.

<sup>1</sup> Aaron Freilich, Henry H. Shanholt, and Joel S. Georges, *Elementary Algebra*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1940. Pp. vi+544+26. \$1.36.

The example used to illustrate some of the steps in problem-solving was immediately criticized by a large group of teachers as being artificial rather than "real." Nevertheless the organization of the material indicates that the pupil is given ample opportunity to exercise his power to think, to analyze, to reason, and to draw conclusions. Dependence, variation, and relationship are repeatedly emphasized in an attempt to further the pupil's understanding of the constant change in the world today.

Interesting features of the book are chapter previews; historical notes; mathematical quotations from history, philosophy, or science, somewhat descriptive of the chapter title; and a cumulative review at the end of each chapter.

The whole book impresses one as a substantial organization of materials and principles covering the weak spot in the sequential setup of secondary mathematics.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

*Abstracts, Graduate Theses in Education, Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1937, 1938, 1939, Vol. III.* Compiled and edited by Carter V. Good, L. A. Pechstein, and Gordon Hendrickson. Cincinnati, Ohio: Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1940. Pp. xvi+252.

ANDERSON, JOHN PEYTON. *A Study of the Relationships between Certain Aspects of Parental Behavior and Attitudes and the Behavior of Junior High School Pupils.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 809. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. vi+196.

*Art Education Today, 1940.* Art Appreciation Number. An Annual Devoted to the Problems of Art Education, Sponsored by Members of the Fine Arts Staff, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 86. \$1.25.

BENZ, MARGARET GILBERT. *Family Counseling Service in a University Community.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 800. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. xvi+126. \$1.60.

BETZNER, JEAN, and MOORE, ANNIE E. *Everychild and Books.* Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+174.

CARROLL, HERBERT A. *Genius in the Making.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xii+308. \$2.75.

DURRELL, DONALD D. *Improvement of Basic Reading Abilities.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940. Pp. viii+408.

- GANS, ROMA. *A Study of Critical Reading Comprehension in the Intermediate Grades*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 811. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. vi+136. \$1.85.
- GENTRY, JOHN ROBERT. *Immediate Effects of Interpolated Rest Periods on Learning Performance*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 799. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. vi+58. \$1.60.
- GOETSCH, HELEN BERTHA. *Parental Income and College Opportunities*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 795. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. x+158. \$1.60.
- HINTON, EUGENE MARK. *An Analytical Study of the Qualities of Style and Rhetoric Found in English Compositions*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 806. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. viii+136. \$1.85.
- KENNAN, RICHARD BARNES. *The Private Correspondence School Enrollee*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 796. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. x+108. \$1.75.
- LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. *Curriculum Development in City School Systems*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiv+238. \$2.00.
- MEMBERS OF THE STAFF. *Curriculum Records of the Children's School, National College of Education*. Evanston, Illinois: Bureau of Publications, National College of Education, 1940. Pp. xii+606. \$2.50.
- NICOL, JOHN. *The Technical Schools of New Zealand: An Historical Survey*. Educational Research Series, No. 12. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1940. Pp. xii+250.
- RICHARDSON, JAMES W. *Problems of Articulation between the Units of Secondary Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 804. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. vi+192. \$2.10.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH. *Student Teaching: An Experience Program*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+330. \$2.50.
- SORENSEN, HERBERT. *Psychology in Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+490. \$2.75.
- SPRAGUE, H. A. *A Decade of Progress in the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers: A Study of Curriculum Requirements in 55 State Teachers Colleges in 1928 and 1938*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 794. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. viii+170. \$1.85.
- STRANG, RUTH. *Pupil Personnel and Guidance*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+356. \$2.00.
- THOMSON, GODFREY H. *An Analysis of Performance Test Scores of a Representative Group of Scottish Children*. Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, XVI. International Examination Inquiry. London: University of London Press, Ltd., 1940. Pp. viii+58.
- TUCKER, CLARA. *A Study of Mothers' Practices and Children's Activities in a Co-operative Nursery School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education,

No. 810. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. viii+166. \$1.85.

WANG, CHARLES K. A. *An Annotated Bibliography of Mental Tests and Scales*, Vol. I. Publications of the College of Education, Catholic University of Peking, No. 1. Peiping, China: Catholic University Press, 1939. Pp. vi+726.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

*Adventures in Biology*. By Teachers of Biology in the High Schools of the City of New York, Julius Schwartz, Chairman. Brooklyn, New York: New York Association of Biology Teachers (Grover Cleveland High School), 1940. Pp. viii+102. \$0.50.

ARNOLD, JOSEPH IRVIN. *Challenges to American Youth*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1940. Pp. 696. \$1.80.

The Barnes Dollar Sports Library: *Six-Man Football* by Ray O. Duncan. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. Pp. x+76. \$1.00.

BLANCHARD, JOHN, under the direction of the NORTHWEST REGIONAL COUNCIL, PORTLAND, OREGON. *Caravans to the Northwest*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. 124. \$1.24.

CENTER, STELLA S., and PERSONS, GLADYS L. *Experiences in Reading and Thinking*, pp. xii+394, \$1.20; *Practices in Reading and Thinking*, pp. xiv+472, \$1.40; *Problems in Reading and Thinking*, pp. xii+658, \$1.80. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940.

*Contemporary Social Problems: A Tentative Formulation for Teachers of Social Studies*. Edited by Louis Wirth. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940 (second edition). Pp. x+68. \$1.00.

CRAIG, GERALD S., JOHNSON, GOLDIE M., and LEWIS, JUNE E. *New Pathways in Science: The Earth Then and Now*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. 480. \$1.00.

FORKNER, HAMDEN L., OSBORNE, AGNES E., and O'BRIEN, JAMES E. *Correlated Dictation and Transcription* (Gregg edition). Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. x+546. \$1.80.

GILMARTIN, JOHN G. *Gilmartin's Word Study*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940 (second revised edition). Pp. x+180. \$0.48 (school edition).

GREGG, JOHN ROBERT. *Gregg Speed Building: One-Year Course, with Thirty-two Lessons on the English of Business* by E. Lillian Hutchinson. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1940. Pp. xx+650. \$1.50.

HARTLEY, WILLIAM H. *Selected Films for American History and Problems*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. x+276. \$2.25.

POWERS, SAMUEL RALPH; NEUNER, ELSIE FLINT; BRUNER, HERBERT BASCOM; and BRADLEY, JOHN HODGDON. *Our World Changes*. Adventuring in Science. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. vi+564. \$1.52.

*Readings for Italian: A Bibliography of Materials for Atmosphere and Background for Teachers and Pupils in Foreign Language Classes*. Compiled by

- Lavinia Caprio La Manna. *Reading for Background No. 13*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940. Pp. 46. \$0.35.
- REEVE, WILLIAM DAVID. *General Mathematics*: Workbooks Nos. 1, 2, and 3. The Reeve Mathematics Series. New York: Odyssey Press, Inc., 1940. Pp. 158 (each), \$0.64 (each).
- RENNER, GEORGE T., and HARTLEY, WILLIAM H. *Conservation and Citizenship*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. x+368. \$1.60.
- STOVALL, EVELYN L. *You and Your Reading*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+496. \$1.32.
- WELCHONS, A. M., and KRICKENBERGER, W. R. *Plane Geometry*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940 (revised). Pp. x+502. \$1.40.

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- ABRAMSON, JADWIGA. *L'Enfant et l'adolescent instables: études cliniques et psychologiques*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1940. Pp. xx+390.
- Abstracts of Studies in Education at the Pennsylvania State College*, Part IX (1940). Edited by Charles C. Peters. Pennsylvania State College Studies in Education, No. 22. State College, Pennsylvania: School of Education, Pennsylvania State College, 1940. Pp. 72.
- ALLEN, PAUL. *Kansas Mammals*. Studies in Education Number (Nineteenth of the Series). Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia Bulletin of Information, Vol. XX, No. 5. Emporia, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1940. Pp. 62.
- "Annual List of the Research Activities of the Members of the Association." Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Educational Research Department of the Ohio Education Association, 1940. Pp. 46 (mimeographed).
- Annual Report of the General Education Board, 1939*. New York: General Education Board. Pp. 172.
- BETTS, EMMETT ALBERT, with the assistance of ARTHUR W. AYERS. *Data on Visual Sensation and Perception Tests: Part II, Visual Efficiency*. Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View Co., 1940. Pp. 66.
- BUXTON, CLAUDE E. *Latent Learning and the Goal Gradient Hypothesis*. Contributions to Psychological Theory, Vol. II, No. 2, Serial No. 6. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1940. Pp. x+76. \$1.00.
- CONANT, JAMES B., and SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *Education for a Classless Society: Three Essays on the Purposes and Problems of American Education*. Occasional Pamphlets of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, No. 4. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1940. Pp. 44. \$0.25.
- "Consumer Education: Why and How." Proceedings of a Conference on Consumer Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee, Held on May 17 and 18, 1940, in Co-operation with the Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. Bulletin No. 75. Nashville, Tennessee: Curriculum Laboratory, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1940. Pp. 60 (mimeographed). \$0.25.

- A Critical Survey of the Negro Adolescent and His Education.* Journal of Negro Education, Vol. IX, No. 3. Yearbook Number, IX. Washington: Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, 1940. Pp. 275-546. \$2.00.
- Cultural and Social Elements in the Education of Teachers.* Washington: Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1940. Pp. 52.
- Educational Policies for Community Recreation.* Washington: Educational Policies Commission and the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation of the National Education Association, 1940. Pp. 32. \$0.10.
- EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU STAFF. *1940 Achievement Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies.* Educational Records Bulletin No. 30. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1940. Pp. 76.
- JACKSON, ROBERT W. B. *Application of the Analysis of Variance and Covariance Method to Educational Problems.* Bulletin of the Department of Educational Research, No. 11. Toronto, Canada: Department of Educational Research, University of Toronto, 1940. Pp. 104. \$1.00.
- The Language Arts.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. X, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1940. Pp. 73-175. \$1.00.
- LEARNED, WILLIAM S., and HAWKES, ANNA L. ROSE. *An Experiment in Responsible Learning: A Report to the Carnegie Foundation on Projects in Evaluation of Secondary School Progress, 1929-1938.* Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania. Bulletin No. 31. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1940. Pp. 62.
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